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2-13

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Alex.r M. Edwards Mc

A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND COMMERCIAL

# GRAMMAR;

August 1st AND PRESENT STATE 1804

OF THE SEVERAL

## *KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.*

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem, and the lateſt Obſervations.
II. A general View of the Earth, conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems
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VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.
VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any-where obſerved upon the Face of Nature, ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.
VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, Orders of Knighthood, &c.
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BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY JAMES FERGUSON, F. R. S.


TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

*THE LATE DISCOVERIES OF DR. HERSCHEL, AND OTHER EMINENT ASTRONOMERS.*

---

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

ENGRAVED FROM THE MOST RECENT OBSERVATIONS AND DRAUGHTS OF GEOGRAPHICAL TRAVELLERS.

THE NINETEENTH EDITION,

Corrected and conſiderably Enlarged.


*LONDON:*

PRINTED FOR G. G. AND J. ROBINSON, IN PATER-NOSTER-ROW; AND J. MAWMAN (SUCCESSOR TO MR. DILLY) IN THE POULTRY.

1801.


Guthrie
K

George Staunton's authentic Account of the Voyage and Embassy of Lord Macartney.—Of *Africa*, little is yet known; though great exertions have lately been made to add to our knowledge of that continent. The Travels of Mr. Park, who appears to have penetrated farther into the interior parts of that vast country than perhaps any other European, and the geographical illustrations of his journey by that judicious geographer major Rennell, as also the Travels of Mr. Browne in Egypt and Dar-Fur, have enabled us to make important additions to our account of that quarter of the globe.—The Geography of *America* owes much to the labours of Mr. Morse, a gentleman of that country, who visited in person the several states in the Union, and maintained an extensive correspondence with men of science. From this authentic source a particular account is now given of each state singly, with its divisions into districts, counties, towns, &c. besides a variety of other particulars; and the new states of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee, are inserted in their proper order, according to their respective situations. The voyages of the unfortunate French navigator, M. de la Pérouse, and captain Vancouver, have afforded us much useful information; the latter, especially, has enabled us to correct the misrepresentations of some former voyagers, with respect to pretended discoveries on the north-west coast of America, which had never before been so accurately explored. In fine, no publications on the subject of geography, and the present state of the different countries of the world, have been published since the last edition, which have not been carefully consulted.

As this work is historical as well as geographical, the perpetual changes of states and human affairs, especially those produced by the late revolutions which have convulsed Europe, have rendered some consi-

derable additions and alterations necessary in the historical part. Such have been made in this edition; and the history of each country is brought down to the present time; that of Great Britain is considerably enlarged; and the stupendous exertions and rapid conquests of the French republic have been faithfully detailed; while the calamitous events, which, in that distracted country, have been the consequence of contending factions and an unsettled government, have been pourtrayed in their true colours, and such as cannot fail to excite every honest Briton to cherish and defend the excellent and well-poised constitution of his own happy island; a constitution formed and improved by the accumulated wisdom of ages.

To make room for these additions, and such insertions as were absolutely necessary to render the work more perfect, some parts, which appeared too diffuse, have been abridged; and others, less important, have been omitted. Yet so numerous have the additions been, as to enlarge this edition much beyond the last. Though the two last improved editions exceeded in bulk very considerably the preceding ones, this will be found to exceed the last (in 1798) by more than thirty pages, and nearly one hundred of new information;—a proof that great pains have been employed to give the work a just and continued claim to general notice and approbation.

*August*, 1800.

# PREFACE.

TO a man sincerely interested in the welfare of society and of his own country, it must be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progress and general diffusion of learning and civility which, within the present age, have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the case in some other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this island, may boast of our superiority to those illiberal prejudices which not only cramp the genius but sour the temper of man, and disturb all agreeable intercourse of society. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the schools of the philosophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greatest advantages which heaven has bestowed on mankind, it is become as universal as it is useful.

This general diffusion of knowledge is one effect of that happy constitution of government which, towards the close of the last century, was confirmed to us, and which constitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people possess little wealth, have little power, and consequently meet with little respect; in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of course, a proper share of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their studies; as the great body of the people, no less than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amused and instructed. Books have been divested of the terms of the schools, reduced from that size which suited only the purses of the rich and the avocations of the studious, and are adapted to persons of more ordinary fortunes, whose attachment to other pursuits admitted of little leisure for those of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that superior improvement which distinguishes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries

To promote and advance this improvement is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that we have chosen, and none seems capable of being handled in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the sublimest pursuit of mankind, it must be allowed, is that which most nearly interests them, and to which their abilities are best adapted. And books of Geography, which describe the situation, extent, soil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, sciences, and arts, of all the inhabitants upon earth; promise the best assistance for attaining this knowledge.

The compendium of Geography we now offer to the Public differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides exhibiting an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an instructive, though compendious, detail of the general history of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of a great many circumstances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a state, than most people seem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral, or political, as well as natural Geography, no one of these objects should pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only interesting in itself, but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehensive notion of the subject in general. We have thought it necessary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the history and present state of learning in the several countries we describe, with the characters of such persons as have been most eminent in the various departments of letters and philosophy. This subject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requisite, when we consider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. These objects, in-

deed, till of late, seldom found a place in geographical performances; and, even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or instructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting solely under the influence of avarice, the passion which first induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified, to collect such materials as are proper for gratifying our curiosity, with regard to these particulars. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information upon such subjects. In the course of the present century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirst for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic attention; and, by laying open the internal springs of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the various stages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifest impropriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labours, by means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In considering the present state of nations, few circumstances are of more importance than their mutual intercourse. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern states, and of which, therefore, we have never lost sight in the present undertaking.

We are sensible that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he was also made acquainted with their situation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This constitutes the historical part of our work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Instead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of newspaper oc-

currences, no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only such facts as are interesting, either in themselves, or from their relation to objects of importance. Instead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the history of each country;—such an epitome as may be read with equal pleasure and advantage, and which may be considered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and, in treating of their particular history, sometimes carried our researches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it necessary, for the satisfaction of such readers as are unacquainted with classical learning, to begin our historical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inserting an account of the ancient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader of comparing together, not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they subsisted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the history of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatise extant.

In the execution of our design, we have all along endeavoured to observe order and perspicuity. Elegance we have sacrificed to brevity; happy to catch the leading features which distinguish the characters of nations, and by a few strokes to hit off, though not completely to finish.

What has enabled us to comprise so many subjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omission of many immaterial circumstances, which are recorded in other performances of the same kind, and of all those fabulous accounts or descriptions which, to the disgrace of the human understanding, swell the works of geographers; though the falsity of them, both from their own nature, and the concurring testimony of the most enlightened and best-informed travellers and historians, has been long since detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have been more or less diffuse, according to their importance to

us as men and as subjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both respects, deserved the greatest share of our attention. Great Britain, though she cannot boast of a more luxuriant soil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and superior kind, which make her the delight, the envy, and the mistress of the world: these are, the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political constitution, and the moderation of her religious system. With regard to the British empire we have therefore been singularly copious.

Next to Great Britain, we have been most particular upon the other states of Europe; and always in proportion as they present us with the largest field for useful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, the important system of practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thousand arguments will appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an extended, unrestrained commerce.

Europe having occupied so large a part of our volume, Asia next claims our attention; which, however, though in some respects the most famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or instruction. In Asia, a strong attachment to ancient customs, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of man, and prevent that variety in manners and character which distinguishes the European nations.

In Africa, the human mind seems degraded below its natural state. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country so immersed in rudeness and barbarity, besides that it could afford little instruction, would be disgusting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and sciences, without which the human mind remains torpid and inactive, discover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy sameness almost every-where prevails; and the trifling distinctions which are discovered among them seem rather to arise from an excess of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though these quarters of the globe are treated less extensively than Europe, there is no

district of them, however barren or savage, entirely omitted.

America, whether considered as an immense continent, inhabited by an endless variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and government, deserves very particular attention. The bold discovery and barbarous conquest of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects which, together with the description of the country, deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

In treating of such a variety of subjects, some less obvious particulars, no doubt, must escape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures sketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuse imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extensive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, insist upon the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed with care, by the best-informed artists in these kingdoms, will, we hope, afford satisfaction. The science of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from those who are alone capable of giving it, still remains in a very imperfect state; and the exact divisions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical surveys, are far from being well ascertained. This consideration has induced us to adopt the most unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables, which, if they give not the exactest account, afford at least a general idea of this subject; which is all indeed we can attain, until the geographical science arrives at greater perfection.

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Peter W. Canfield. Nassau Hall
Princeton. 7th June. 1806

# INTRODUCTION.

## PART I.

## OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

### SECT. I.

### OF THE PLANETS, THE COMETS, THE FIXED STARS, AND THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be completely underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. It will therefore be neceſſary to begin this work with a ſummary view of the ſcience of ASTRONOMY, and a brief account of the planets and other heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is that glorious luminary, the ſun, the fountain of light and heat to the ſeveral planets which move round it, and which, together with it, compoſe what aſtronomers have called the Solar Syſtem. The way or path in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſeven planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the centre or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun), are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the four laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps, more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form an idea of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe our earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt perform a ſimilar revolution. We ſhall only, therefore, particularly conſider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall give, with ſuch explanations as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth was long conſidered as one extenſive plane, of no remarkable thickneſs; and the regions below it were ſuppoſed to be the habitations of ſpirits. The heavens, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars, ap-

peared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for its uſe or ornament. Several reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needleſs to mention them, becauſe we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators, who have actually ſailed round it; as for inſtance that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that circumnavigated the globe, ſailing weſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without altering its direction, except to the north or ſouth, as compelled by the winds, or intervening land.

The ſpherical figure of the earth being fully proved, the hypotheſis of its motion was evidently rendered much more probable. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion; and a very ſtrong, and, in reality, unanſwerable, argument for that motion was derived from conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as aſtronomers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to aſcertain pretty nearly the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, in the ſame manner as every perſon acquainted with the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it,—it appeared, that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. We muſt, however, remember that theſe two motions in the earth are perfectly diſtinct, and not imagine that the number of revolutions cauſed by the rotatory motion is in proportion to the ſpace paſſed through by the progreſſive, as is the caſe with the ball on the table or the bowling-green. The earth, therefore, in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, while the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a diurnal motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in the ſpace of a year. Now, as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] It will eaſily be conceived that what has been ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, is equally applicable to all the other planets. Of theſe, beſide the ſeven already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are fourteen others which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four; Saturn has ſeven, two * of theſe having been lately diſcovered by Dr. Herſchel); and the Georgium Sidus two, as that excellent aſtronomer has ſhown. Theſe are called moons, from their reſemblance to our moon; and ſometimes *ſecondary* planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

It will be neceſſary for the underſtanding of the following table, to explain what is meant by the *inclination of the axes* of the planets *to their orbits*, and the *mean diſtances* of the planets. We have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel to or in a line with the axis of its orbit: becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This, therefore, is not the caſe:—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form an idea of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table.

In order to underſtand what is meant by the mean diſtances of the planets from the ſun, we muſt obſerve that the orbit, or path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſis, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun; and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table:

* See the 80th vol. of the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth; ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal, effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keil, Maclaurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.)

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon with the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies, called the *fixed ſtars*, which being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar; and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called ſtars of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though, in a clear winter's night without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable (which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner), yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can at any time be ſeen with the naked eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the invention of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. (Mr. Flamſteed, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of the teleſcope. Dr. Herſchel, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, I ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande: "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new teleſcope, the univerſe "increaſed under his eye; 44,000 ſtars, ſeen in the ſpace of a few de-"grees, ſeemed to indicate that there were ſeventy-five millions in the "heavens." But what are all theſe, when compared to thoſe that fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of æther? Indeed the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination; for who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits where the Creator "ſtayed his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes?")

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and from each other, is, of all conſiderations, the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For, notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer to us when the earth is in that part

of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of thoſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun: and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, though its motion is ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound, which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years. And a cannon-ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have, nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render thoſe objects viſible by reflection. The ſtars, therefore, ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is evident that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is far from probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy *, and a mean opinion of the divine wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only, in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, that ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſeaſhore; the ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars, as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and, therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the Scriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe,—to render us juſt, virtuous, and humane; that, inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which, in ſpeaking of natural things, ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to our Maker, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity* or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law, which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, retains the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

## SECT. II.

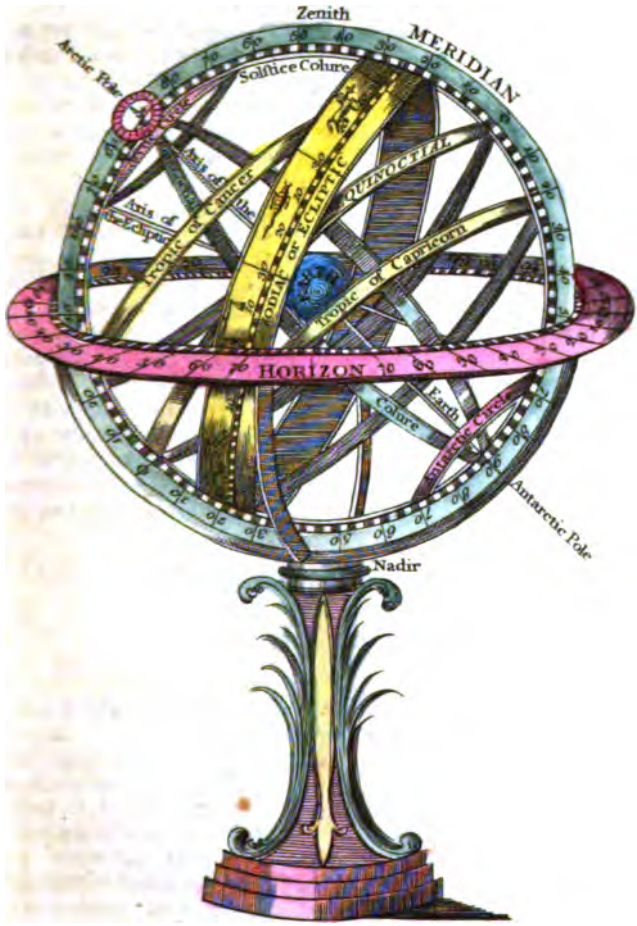
### OF THE SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing ſection, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to precede that of the globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next ſection. In treating this ſubject we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere on the oppoſite page.

The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth being the largeſt, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved, that there were two points in the heavens which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They further obſerved, that, on the 20th of March and

# The Armillary Sphere.



23d of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, must divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was also called the *Equinoctial Line*, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that, from the 21st of June to the 22d of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from which he had set out, from the 22d of December to the 21st of June—they fixed *these points*, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from and parallel to this circle, which they called the *Poles of the zodiac*, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles by two other circles called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artificial sphere, as well as the *horizon*, which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above, and that which is below it.

## SECT. III.

### OF THE GLOBE.

By the Globe is meant the representation of the different places and countries on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Geographers have represented the situation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe: and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined, according as they lay on one side of the equator or the other. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere above mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the doctrine of the globe is founded, may proceed to consider the doctrine

itſelf, or, in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the *artificial globe.*

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in ſpeaking of the earth with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body,—yet it has been diſcovered that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This occaſioned great diſputes between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom ſir Iſaac Newton and Caſſini, a French aſtronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate ſpheroid*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator, ſo that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame centre and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted preciſely the reverſe; that is, that its diameter was lengthened towards the poles. In order to decide this queſtion, the king of France, in 1736, ſent out ſome able mathematicians towards the north pole, and likewiſe others towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle, in thoſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of ſir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of ſoft clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. This is exactly the caſe with reſpect to our earth; only that its axis repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 4, the diameter of the globe is given according to the beſt obſervations; ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and a half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark, as it were, the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator: ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and in removing from the poles, he approaches the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs

through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into equal parts. The greater circles are *ſix* in number, the leſſer only *four*.

EQUATOR.] The firſt *great circle* is the *Equator* or *Equinoctial;* and by navigators called the *Line*. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt is that which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or ſea.

This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe; and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears that each place has its own *ſenſible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*,—the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under feet. The broad wooden circle which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the zodiac (of which hereafter,) viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns, together with the days of the month according to the old ſtyle, and then according to the new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained hereafter.

MERIDIAN.] *This circle* is repreſented by the *braſs ring* on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe, when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then *meridies* or mid-day, and then the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now, as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Aries | ♈ | . . | March | 7. Libra | ♎ | . | September |
| 2. Taurus | ♉ | . . | April | 8. Scorpio | ♏ | . | October |
| 3. Gemini | ♊ | . . | May | 9. Sagittarius | ♐ | . | November |
| 4. Cancer | ♋ | . . | June | 10. Capricorn | ♑ | . | December |
| 5. Leo | ♌ | . . | July | 11. Aquarius | ♒ | . | January |
| 6. Virgo | ♍ | . . | Auguſt | 12. Piſces | ♓ | . | February. |

COLURES.] If we imagine *two great circles* paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures,—the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure.—Theſe are *all* the *great circles*.

TROPICS.] If we ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, the one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, from the Greek word τροπη, *a turning*, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through the firſt points of theſe ſigns.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear, in Greek αρκτος; the *ſouthern*, the *Antarctic*, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the *four leſſer circles*. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it.

Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The principal deſign of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus, after it was diſcovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called *Zones*, from the Greek word ζωνη, which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſerts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes the moſt perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe, meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two *frigid zones* lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the frigid or frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and

every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones are thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the ſouthern temperate zone is very imperfect; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and ſtill leſs of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern temperate and torrid zones are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

CLIMATES.] But the diviſion of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary, becauſe it is of more importance to mankind to know the ſituations of places with regard to each other, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining the relative ſituation of places was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long at the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day in that place. They conceived a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator; and as they called the ſpaces contained between theſe circles Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore, was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhow, the deſign which firſt introduced it may be better anſwered in another way. There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt twenty-four, the days increaſe by half hours: but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the pole, the days increaſe by months. The nature and reaſon of this the reader will more fully underſtand, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time, we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhow in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the com paſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſ ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains ninety degrees, or on quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtance and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen me ridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

## A TABLE,

SHOWING

The Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

| Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. | Degrees of Latitude. | Miles. | 100th Parts of a Mile. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 59 | 96 | 31 | 51 | 43 | 61 | 29 | 04 |
| 2 | 59 | 94 | 32 | 50 | 88 | 62 | 28 | 17 |
| 3 | 59 | 92 | 33 | 50 | 32 | 63 | 27 | 24 |
| 4 | 59 | 86 | 34 | 49 | 74 | 64 | 26 | 30 |
| 5 | 59 | 77 | 35 | 49 | 15 | 65 | 25 | 36 |
| 6 | 59 | 67 | 36 | 48 | 54 | 66 | 24 | 41 |
| 7 | 59 | 56 | 37 | 47 | 92 | 67 | 23 | 45 |
| 8 | 59 | 40 | 38 | 47 | 28 | 68 | 22 | 48 |
| 9 | 59 | 20 | 39 | 46 | 62 | 69 | 21 | 51 |
| 10 | 59 | 08 | 40 | 46 | 00 | 70 | 20 | 52 |
| 11 | 58 | 89 | 41 | 45 | 28 | 71 | 19 | 54 |
| 12 | 58 | 68 | 42 | 44 | 95 | 72 | 18 | 55 |
| 13 | 58 | 46 | 43 | 43 | 88 | 73 | 17 | 54 |
| 14 | 58 | 22 | 44 | 43 | 16 | 74 | 16 | 53 |
| 15 | 58 | 00 | 45 | 42 | 43 | 75 | 15 | 52 |
| 16 | 57 | 60 | 46 | 41 | 68 | 76 | 14 | 51 |
| 17 | 57 | 30 | 47 | 41 | 00 | 77 | 13 | 50 |
| 18 | 57 | 04 | 48 | 40 | 15 | 78 | 12 | 48 |
| 19 | 56 | 73 | 49 | 39 | 36 | 79 | 11 | 45 |
| 20 | 56 | 38 | 50 | 38 | 57 | 80 | 10 | 42 |
| 21 | 56 | 00 | 51 | 37 | 73 | 81 | 09 | 38 |
| 22 | 55 | 63 | 52 | 37 | 00 | 82 | 08 | 35 |
| 23 | 55 | 23 | 53 | 36 | 18 | 83 | 07 | 32 |
| 24 | 54 | 81 | 54 | 35 | 26 | 84 | 06 | 28 |
| 25 | 54 | 38 | 55 | 34 | 41 | 85 | 05 | 25 |
| 26 | 54 | 00 | 56 | 33 | 55 | 86 | 04 | 18 |
| 27 | 53 | 44 | 57 | 32 | 67 | 87 | 03 | 14 |
| 28 | 53 | 00 | 58 | 31 | 79 | 88 | 02 | 09 |
| 29 | 52 | 48 | 59 | 30 | 90 | 89 | 01 | 05 |
| 30 | 51 | 96 | 60 | 30 | 00 | 90 | 00 | 00 |

## PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROBLEM 1. *The Diameter of an artificial Globe being given, to find its Surface in ſquare, and its Solidity in cubic, Meaſure.*

MULTIPLY the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo of the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for, having found the perpendicular height of the atmoſphere by the common experiment of the aſcent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, which again multiply by one ſixth of that diameter, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the Globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith; and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any Place.*

For this, ſee page 17.

PROB. 4. *The Longitude and Latitude of any Place being given, to find that Place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the mark is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The Latitude of any Place being given, to find all thoſe Places that have the ſame Latitude.*

The globe being rectified *(a)* according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

*(a)* PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any Time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time; which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The Month and Day being given, as alſo the particular Time of that Day, to find thoſe Places of the Globe to which the Sun is in the Meridian at that Time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately from the equator, towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary;—the circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heavens every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of thoſe places at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all thoſe places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics once a year, but never any where elſe. For there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and there is but one point of the ecliptic, which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the nearer tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the farther tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of thoſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary takes place.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting, and at the oppoſite time of the year, without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her perform her voyage in what time ſhe will, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day at their return, without gaining one moment of abſolute time. If they ſail weſtward, they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above the horizon as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

## OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands), viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over), on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, nearly 70 miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land, every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea ſide. Mountains, valleys, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed, in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive ocea (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlant* the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocea divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wid The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. T Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 mil wide.

An *ocean* is a vaſt collection of water, without any entire ſeparati of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *ſea* is a ſmaller colle tion of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by t land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large colle tion of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, a the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, confined lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea in another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſom times called a *ſound*; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of t ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſag whereby it communicates with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very larg it is called an inland ſea, as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far int the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay; if it be very ſmall, a *creek haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canal brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, lik thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the re membrance of the great parts of the land and water we have deſcribed, may be proper to obſerve that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance be tween them. The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory or cape land is like a bay or creek of the ſea; and an iſthmus, whereby two land are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, we ſhall ſubjoin a table exhibiting the ſuperficial contents of the whole globe in ſquare miles, fixt to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and prin cipal iſlands, placed as they are ſubordinate to each other in magnitude.

| | Square Miles. |
|---|---|
| The Globe | 148,510,627 |
| Seas and unknown Parts | 117,843,821 |
| The Habitable World * | 30,666,806 |
| Europe | 2,749,349 |
| Afia | 10,257,487 |
| Africa | 8,506,208 |
| America | 9,153,762 |
| Perfian Empire under Darius | 1,650,000 |
| Rom. Em. in its utmoft height | 1,610,000 |
| Ruffia | 3,576,485 |
| Chinefe | 1,749,000 |
| Great Mogul | 1,116,000 |
| Turkifh | 960,057 |
| Britifh, exclufive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar | 869,996 |
| Prefent Perfian | 800,000 |

**ISLANDS.**

| | |
|---|---|
| Borneo | 228,000 |
| Madagafcar | 168,000 |
| Sumatra | 129,000 |
| Japan | 118,000 |
| Great Britain | 72,920 |
| Celebes | 68,400 |
| Manilla | 58,500 |
| Iceland | 46,000 |
| Terra del Fuego | 42,075 |
| Mindanno | 39,200 |
| Cuba | 38,400 |
| Java | 38,250 |
| Hifpaniola | 36,000 |
| Newfoundland | 35,500 |
| Ceylon | 27,730 |
| Ireland | 27,457 |
| Formofa | 17,000 |
| Anian | 11,900 |
| Gilolo | 10,400 |
| Sicily | 9,400 |
| Timor | 7,800 |
| Sardinia | 6,600 |
| Cyprus | 6,300 |
| Jamaica | 6,000 |
| Flores | 6,000 |
| Ceram | 5,400 |
| Breton | 4,000 |
| Socotra | 3,600 |
| Candia | 3,220 |
| Porto Rico | 3,200 |
| Corfica | 2,520 |
| Zealand | 1,935 |
| Majorca | 1,400 |
| St. Jago | 1,400 |
| Negropont | 1,300 |
| Teneriffe | 1,272 |
| Gothland | 1,000 |
| Madeira | 950 |
| St. Michael | 920 |
| Sky | 900 |
| Lewis | 880 |
| Funen | 768 |
| Yvica | 625 |
| Minorca | 520 |
| Rhodes | 480 |
| Cephalonia | 420 |
| Amboyna | 400 |
| Orkn. Pomona | 384 |
| Scio | 300 |
| Martinico | 260 |
| Lemnos | 220 |
| Corfu | 194 |
| Providence | 165 |
| Man | 160 |
| Bornholm | 160 |
| Wight | 150 |
| Malta | 150 |
| Barbadoes | 140 |
| Zante | 120 |
| Antigua | 100 |
| St. Chriftopher's | 80 |
| St. Helena | 80 |
| Guernfey | 50 |
| Jerfey | 42 |
| Bermudas | 40 |
| Rhode | 36 |

To thefe iflands may be added the following, which have lately been difcovered or more fully explored. The exact dimenfions of them are not afcertained: but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeft, which is fuppofed to be nearly equal in fize to the whole continent of Europe:

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite, or King George's Ifland,
Friendly Iflands,
Marquefas,
Eafter or Davis's Ifland.

* The number of inhabitants computed at prefent to be in the known world, at a medium, taken from the beft calculations, are about 953 millions.

| | |
|---|---|
| Europe contains | 153 Millions |
| Afia | 500 |
| Africa | 150 |
| America | 150 |
| Total | 953 |

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finifh the doctrine of the earth, without confidering the winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its furface principally arife.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where furrounded by a fine invifible fluid, which extends to feveral miles above its furface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a fmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, fo as to fill a very large fpace, or to be compreffed into a much fmaller compafs than it occupied before. The general caufe of the expanfion of the air is heat; the general caufe of its compreffion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmofphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreffed. But when air is put in motion we call it *wind* in general, and a breeze, gale, or ftorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are com-

monly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that, from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream or tide of air always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan, which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from ſome particular point of the compaſs without much variation, are of three kinds; 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to nearly thirty degrees of latitude on each ſide of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific ſeas. 2. The *Monſoons*, or ſhifting trade winds, which blow ſix months in one direction, and the other ſix months in the oppoſite. Theſe are moſtly in the Indian or Eaſtern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning and rain. 3. The *Sea* and *Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to midday, and from the ſea from about noon till midnight; theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the wind blows conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and that of the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be alſo uſeful to ſtudents in navigation and geography to obſerve farther, that the courſe or latitude our ſhips generally keep in their paſſage from England to America, and the Weſt Indies, is,

To Boſton in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores, or Weſtern Iſlands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper courſe, 32 degrees; but the uſual courſe, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees; and in this courſe they frequently touch at Antigua: it is this courſe our Weſt India ſhips ſail in.

The Spaniſh galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain, about 37 degrees.

TIDES.] By the *tides* is meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity, till the immortal ſir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For, having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another in proportion to their diſtance, it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are im-

mediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it; and conſequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former: for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow twice in a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours fifty minutes.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring-Tides*: for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line; and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap-Tides*: for in thoſe quarters, the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them; ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands and continents which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without conſidering the ſituation of the ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects that have a ſhare in producing them.

CURRENTS.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from ſouth to north. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the ſound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth; whereas a map, being a plane ſurface, cannot repreſent a ſpherical body. But though the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of ſeveral, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude,

the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactne
because such maps might be joined together so as to form a convex s
face, nearly as spherical as the globe itself.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is considered as the upper part of
map: the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on
right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the west on the
hand, opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are dra
meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitu*
The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees
latitude and longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles co
monly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c.
places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the
stance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we ha
only to measure the space between them with the compasses, or a bit
thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows th
London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly nor
or south, east or west, from each other, we have only to observe the d
grees on the meridians and parallels; and by turning these into miles, y
obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps b
black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head
spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests ar
woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shade
sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by doub
lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures, re
presenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is scarcel
a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure: not only the
of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those
the same country vary in the different provinces, from each other, an
from the standard. Thus the common English mile differs from th
statute mile: and the French have three sorts of leagues. We shall her
give the miles of several countries, compared with the English, by Dr
Halley.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 fur
longs.

The Russian vorst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile English.
The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly one English.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.
The Scotch and Irish mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ English.
The Indian is almost 3 English.
The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.
The German is more than 4 English.
The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.
The French common league is near 3 English; and
The English marine league is 3 English miles.

# PART II.

## OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even sometimes, in speaking of those countries, carried our researches beyond modern times, — it was thought necessary, in

order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to preſent him with a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates (which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant), but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes that have produced, and the effects which have followed from, them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſably requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country: it may be called commercial and political geography, and, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed, according to the beſt chronologers, in the year before Chriſt 4004; and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by ſome chronologers and hiſtorians, but is of little real ſervice. The ſacred records have fully determined the queſtion, that the world was not eternal, and alſo aſcertained the time of its creation with great preciſion*.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters in *Geneſis*, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were ſwept from the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very conſiderable change in the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, rendering them leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which has ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge,—the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations, under the celebrated name of Iapetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod obtained immortal renown, and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity univerſally excited was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurpriſe

B. C. 2348.

B. C. 2247.

* The Samaritan copy of the Pentateuch, or five books of Moſes, makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 ſhort of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy ſtretches it to 2262 years, which is 600 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of ſuperior authority.

it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not the ſmalleſt degree excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſee from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of populati and how ſpeedily mankind increaſe, when the generative faculty li under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incon parably more extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egyp during that early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to ha exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbu As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate fro each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterate B. C. or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be th 1921*. father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of an cient nations begins to dawn; and we learn ſeveral particulars of im portance.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they bega to oppreſs and deſtroy each other. Chedorlaomer, king of the Ela mites, or Perſians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, could not have been very great, ſince, in one of his ex peditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſehold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars reſpecting the Egyptians, which evidently diſcover the cha racteriſtics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyp tian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He was ſur rounded by a crowd of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſ ſions. The particular governments into which that country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the co lony into Egypt, became the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſuc ceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; gra naries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in that age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date, deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the preſent inhabitants of Europe are in debted for their civiliſation and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries: but we ſcarcely know even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur, who, fired with the ſpirit of conqueſt, extended the

* According to Dr. Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Chriſt 2060, and his being called out of Urr, at 1986.

bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which raiſed to its meridian ſplendor by his enterpriſing ſucceſſor Semiramis, and diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Aſſyrian empire, ruled Aſia for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grand-ſon of Noah, was the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands on the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2080. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil polity of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved; and the Greeks, who ſeem to have been at this time as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful. B. C. 1850.

*But the* hiſtory of the Iſraelites is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion of the Bible, 1794 years before Chriſt, but, according to the Hebrew chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations. B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being then alike in theſe reſpects. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in the ſame ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, with regard to arts and refinement, as between the civiliſed kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians of America, or the negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the ſcience and arts of the antediluvian world; theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations, therefore, who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of

the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tr and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the i ſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greec are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is ſcarcely to be ſuppoſ that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, (whoſe foundation, we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity) could ha been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at th time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only lead a wanderi life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally fo lows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it w introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſag in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it durin the patriarchal times. We know from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, th the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, b fore the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and y this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, howeve from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money ha not been of ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fine neſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abra ham gave ſilver, the metal was weighed in the preſence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Medianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the neceſſaries of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea; which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they applied themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their principal purſuit: and with all the writers of pagan antiquity they paſs for the inventors of whatever tended to its improvement. At the time of Abraham they were re-

garded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children; and, according to Herodotus, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſe the knowledge of ſeveral others: aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find, that before the death of Jacob ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been a univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into portions of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people, again, who lived by agriculture, and were become acquainted with the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very ancient, naturally prepared the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an immenſe improvement in aſtronomy. But, with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a gloomy ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and of every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to each other? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Thoſe deſcendants of Noah, who had removed to a great diſtance from the plains of Shinar, loſt all connection with the civiliſed part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect, that, from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. This, however, is far from being the caſe; we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who ſucceeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of that empire, for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was ſwallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Chriſt 1492. By his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was, in all probability, the moſt B. C. 1965.

powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But a cient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying, our curioſity; for, from t reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 1781, w have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſt have continued in a very flouriſhing condition: for Egypt continued pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learnir and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpired to wiſdom, owed i foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptia colony, and endeavoured to civiliſe the rough manners of the or ginal inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed amor the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what a condition they muſt have live before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo ba barous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greec Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental co nections, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they owe their generation. Cranaüs, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the king dom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoure by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

B. C. 1556.

B. C. 1506.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boun daries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, was divided, and which had bee already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſum ſome appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphic tyon, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the worl for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration o poſterity, to endeavour to unite in one confederacy the ſeveral indepen dent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtin diviſions which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſ enemy who might think proper to invade them. This plan he commu nicated to the kings or leaders of the different territories, and by his elo quence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their com mon preſervation. Two deputies from each of thoſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of it founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this aſſembly, what ever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed an finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe politica connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, com mitted to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of th riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, ha been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid founda tions, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country pre ſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among th Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of th Perſian empire. Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it wa inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is, perhaps, the moſt remarkable po litical eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind.

B. C. 1496.

In the year before Chriſt 1322, the Iſthmian games were inſtituted a Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; whic games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered im mortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek ſtates, formerly unconnected with each other except b mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to u dertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the confederacy

The firſt of theſe was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have taken part.

The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly named; though we learn from Homer and other ancient writers, that ſeveral veſſels were employed in that expedition. The fleet was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea occaſioned great difficulty to the Argonauts: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed, in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird, which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of that expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Æa, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during that age, was not leſs important than the circumnavigation of the earth by our modern diſcoverers. B. C. 1263.

From this expedition to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in arts, in power, and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. Theſe veſſels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet. B. C. 1184.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of our preſent work. There appears originally to have been a remarkable reſemblance, as to their political ſituation, between the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided in the adminiſtration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety there were a number of other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans or tribes was not leſs conſiderable than that of the king over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with each other, and ſometimes with their ſovereign; and each particular ſtate was in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to blend the oppoſite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The hiſtory of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which theſe ſtates, which for want of union, were weak and inſignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theſeus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had, by his exploits, acquired great reputation for valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and he conceived, that, by means of the influence which his perſonal character, united to the royal authority with which he was inveſted, had univerſally procured him, he might be able to remove them,

For this purpoſe he endeavoured to maintain and even to increaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans; he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices. By eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed that city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendour of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, being now diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes,—the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year before Chriſt 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened about the ſame time that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like other nations.

B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time, aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas (a period of ſeven hundred years) the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our particular attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous

B. C. 1070.

plant. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpetual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame powers which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians in time became ſenſible that the archontic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame perſon was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again demanded a reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed under this title. B. C. 684. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly licentiouſneſs. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly poſſible that the ancient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuous ſpirits of the Athenians in the firſt flutter of their independence. The wiſer part of the ſtate, therefore, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, were induced to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law to bridle the furious and unruly multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were "written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence; and the code of Draco proved to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again fell into confuſion, which continued till thoſe laws were reformed in the time of Solon, about the year before Chriſt 594. The wiſdom, virtue, and amiable manners, of Solon recommended him to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. This employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country; but he long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, however, motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter on an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, excepting thoſe relative to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law: his eſtabliſhments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed; and the pooreſt claſs he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in

which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſts of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred from each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendancy in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny and the moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which the nearer we examine it, will the more excite our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great outlines of it at leaſt ought not to be here omitted. The country of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was, like the other ſtates of Greece, originally divided into ſeveral petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to have been the firſt king, about the year before Chriſt 1516. At length, the two brothers, Euryſthenes and Procles, obtaining poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in a direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and, in general, all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in fine, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money; they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare: the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks capable of bearing arms were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone war was a relaxation rather than a hardſhip; and they behaved in it with a ſpirit, of which ſcarcely any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

B. C. 1102.

B. C. 884.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year before Chriſt 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of

B. C. 781.

their laws and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to ſeize this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis, governor of Babylon, conſpired againſt their ſovereign, and having ſet fire to his capital (in which Sardanapalus periſhed, before Chriſt 820), divided between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway in Aſia for many years. Pul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria, anno, before Chriſt, 777: and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten tribes captive into Aſſyria and Media, before Chriſt 721. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, alſo, in the year before Chriſt 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and maſtered all the countries round him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. B. C. 538. The manners of this people, brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter into the ſame detail, upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical governments: but how few are our republics! The æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, beſides that in it the Jews were delivered from their captivity, becauſe with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſaid to terminate. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences,—and, if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety.

The taſte for the great and magnificent ſeems to have been the prevailing character of thoſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers with regard to the great works that adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying-places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and each ſide of the baſe ſix hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is thirteen feet ſquare. The ſecond covers as much ground as the firſt, but is forty feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among the Egyptians, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming

or of throwing into the dead body ſuch ſubſtances as experience h diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. T pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of t Egyptian kings, it has been ſuppoſed, were depoſited. From what v read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other wor of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but t tally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet know nor even the conſtruction of vaults. The arts in which thoſe nation next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroider As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their prin cipal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that the had made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phænomena o the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerv that, according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the ab ſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in propor tion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them during the lateſt period of their government. The countrie which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and without much labou afforded all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries, of life. They had long inhabited great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manner with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and, of conſequence, brave and warlike. Such revolutions were eaſily effected in the infancy of the military art, when ſtrength and courage alone gave advantage to one nation over another,—when, properly ſpeaking, there were no for- tified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſe- ful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy,—and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year before Chriſt 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard; but, when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſt- ing. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the B. C. 504. luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius (at the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians' burning the city of Sardis) to ſend forth his numerous armies againſt Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers who, under Cy- rus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, in the plains of B. C. 490. Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abi- lities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of the triumph of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in an- cient writers.

Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an immenſe army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered, by ſome ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the Eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, and ſo well did they know, that, "wanting virtue, life is pain "and woe; that wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around "for happineſs in vain." But though the Perſian war concluded gloriouſly for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired the ſpoils of Perſia,—it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connections with the Perſians after the concluſion of it,—which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; and their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of that prince, became important and powerful) rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Chæronea. But this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſcheme ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained over ſuch á number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Chæronea had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators in moſt of their ſtates were bribed in the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of gaining their affections.

B. C. 480.

B. C. 431.

B. C. 338.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Chæronea. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, whoſe very names had never before

B. C. 334.

reached an European ear, has been described by many authors, both ancient and modern, and constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success B. C. 323. Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives rise to a number of æras and events too complicated for our present purpose, and even too uninteresting. After considering therefore the state of arts and sciences in Greece, we shall pass over to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple, and also more important.

The bare names of illustrious men who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of that glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympius and of the Ephesian Diana were the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies who settled in Asia Minor before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian æra, the tragic poets, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing; Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration,—his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as the equals of the best writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which those philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking and manner of expression. The Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors; and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced into a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable,

and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot but be intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial: and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandiſe themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve an adherence to the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate; whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies with whom he contended had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. Of both theſe maxims we have an example in the war with the Sabines. Romulus, having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but, finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil polity of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers; and, after a long reign ſpent in promoting the civil and military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate which he had himſelf inſtituted. B. C. 753. B. C. 717.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next after him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured, each during his reign, for the greatneſs of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterpriſes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called conſuls, who, without creating B. C. 509.

he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and, being overco
without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans m
uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of
B. C. 190. Ætolians for conquering Philip. They now purſued Antioch the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and, having v quiſhed him by ſea and land, compelled him to ſubmit to a graceful treaty.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of governmer the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; wh denomination, however, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition v ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required them. When we reflect on thoſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithrida king of Pontus, for the ſpace of twenty-ſix years. But this monarch great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men whoſe minds were not enervat by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel t weight of their yoke, but had not the ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſpo ed at finding a prince who dared to ſhow himſelf an enemy to the R mans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, howev was at laſt compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Roma Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdu by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and his life, in the year befo Chriſt 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Mari
B. C. 106. in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Ev the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weig of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced in a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and the other northern nations Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, wh
B. C. 102. name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the north of Eur to tremble The barbarians retired to their wilds and defer leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome co quered the world, there ſubſiſted an inceſſant war within her walls. T war had continued from the firſt period of the government. Ro after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The d ſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Pa cians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people their dependence and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſa diſputes on the ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which ways terminated in favour of liberty.

Theſe diſputes while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not tended with any ſanguinary conſequences. The Patricians, who lo their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſat the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtai laws by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named tricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, came acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements,—when they came tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern co and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable in order to obtain th —the ſtate, too by the factions between its members, and without vi on either ſide to keep it together, became a prey to its own child

hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an unextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name: the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline; and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar is victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world; in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius attempt to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls under the dominion of Mark Antony; young Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium; and there is no Brutus or Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remains the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms amongſt diſtant nations; and while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter of Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than embaſſadors from all quarters of the known world crowd to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer receives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power; and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world four years before the common æra.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 31.

B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners, of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt, of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſe they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfall of Carthage, the Romans, having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts. Their progreſs, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once

put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious, or elegant. A which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores; and the Romans, f the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had alv cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orat of Cicero are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. In poetry, Vi yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, m be conſidered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and E ſtiles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unriva in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory, the Romans can boaſt of Li who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcripti more eloquent, and ſentimental. Tacitus, indeed, did not flouriſh the Auguſtan age; but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, wh they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vi he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we exce the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicur deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during t time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy they nev produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for p rity of ſtyle, wants that *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, that diſti guiſhes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and thoſe of our im mortal Shakſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra which pre ſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe act a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not, indeed, aboliſ the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liber ties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelti upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldier They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at th army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpoti empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe; and the court of its emperors ex hibited the moſt odious ſcenes of that caprice, cruelty, and corruption which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civiliſed part of it; chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more diffi cult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous na tions of Europe—the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote people of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſco vered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline, than of their cou rage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus; and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte; numbers of the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were car ried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the hap pineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their inter courſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, lan guage, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but

miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers, kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe and the north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They returned to their companions, acquainted them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate, than their own; they acquainted them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had loſt; and warmed them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation) with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe in their turn puſhed forward into more fertile countries; and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horrors of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, transferred the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were in conſequence ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the eaſt threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. A. D. 328.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*,) weakened by this diviſion, became a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, was effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were A. D. 476.

gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman emp was the work of many ages; and ſeveral centuries were employed in molishing it. The ancient military diſcipline of the Romans was efficacious, that the remains of it, which deſcended to their ſucceſſo muſt have rendered them ſuperior to their enemies, had it not been the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of mann among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, t emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſta regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, a the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The t ranny and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed und the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæſars, could only be equalled the barbarity of thoſe nations of which the empire at length became th prey.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German natio were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; th Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain; th Goths and Lombards, of Italy and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely an veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature, remained New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where intro duced.

From this period, till the 15th century, Europe exhibited a picture o the moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were word ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in th moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the Breviary, which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy,—and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century,—endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and give their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government, formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general, who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and, in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependents, annexed the ſame condition to the grant; a ſyſtem admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, but which degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude, and deprived them of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron or chieftain buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries

met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty ſoon produced a happy change in the condition of mankind. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the Eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this, too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, having opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt, Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent. A. D. 1096.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariner's compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies or ſocieties of Lombard merchants ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London; and hence the name of Lombard-ſtreet was derived. A. D. 1302.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the 13th century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, entered into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic League*, which became ſo formidable, that its friendſhip was courted and its enmity dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores, and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advantage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of induſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufacture of England, and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations.

A. D. 1330.

The Chriſtian princes, alarmed at the progreſs of their inveterate enemies the Turks, endeavoured to gain the friendſhip and aſſiſtance of the khans of Tartary. The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, an active and enterpriſing ſet of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of thoſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher, Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations and traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the remoteſt corners of India, and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt who ſuggeſted the practicability of a paſſage thither by ſea. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their ap-

A. D. 95.

plication to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

The firſt adventurers contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, at length diſcovered and doubled the extreme cape of that continent, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſcheme ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he at length ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patroniſe him by the repreſentation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed. Perez, therefore, ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe warmly entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raiſe as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the ſum that was requiſite, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurpriſe that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and that he had accidentally diſcovered a new world,—of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs in which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were accompanied and ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences, and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. It was in theſe ages that the powers of Eu- A. D. 1440.

rope were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could ha been expected after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revol tions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we ſhall give ſome account the hiſtory of each particular ſtate, in the following work. The gre events which happened then have not hitherto exhauſted their force. T political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed ſtill continue to operat and the ideas concerning the balance of power, then introduced or re dered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of Europe nations.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain has for a long time e joyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefor to be the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant a pre-eminence. A gre empire cannot be continued in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom ar moderation. Without entering into the labyrinth of political diſpute it will be acknowledged that the unhappy conteſt of Great Britain wit the American colonies, and eſpecially the unſucceſsful war againſt th new republic of France, have plunged her into difficulties; her nation debt has been profuſely augmented; and her taxes enormouſly in creaſed.

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# PART III.

## OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of man kind; but they, being incapable of elevating their ideas to all th ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfection to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard t thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feel ings, and more often the irregular paſſions of the human heart, and wh had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame di ſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and civiliſation among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is hu man from what is divine,—what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that, in the firſt ages of th world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It arose from a divine ſource, and was not then disfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured: and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſo cities of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf to be the depoſitories of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upen theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs

perfect, according to an infinity of circumſtances which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity—that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt—was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phænomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject: and what is ſaid upon it in general muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of diſfigured traditions concerning the nature of the Divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built, therefore, ſolely upon ſentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraven on their fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive: but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange that the image of departed heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity; and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection, however, would be ſufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes exiſted after death, the ſame might alſo be the caſe with thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed;—the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, and the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated, or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names and confound the characters of theſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, though warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, gave no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections; and, in many inſtances, diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambroſia: they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices; and they made love with an ardour unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped naturally reſulted from their character. The moſt enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the ſame notions of gods and religion as thoſe that are to be met with in

the poems of Heſiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flouriſhed before Chriſt 430 years, was the firſt, even in Greece, that publicly announced the exiſtence of one Creator and Governor of the univerſe.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles did not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods, who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs: and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in good fellowſhip without interfering or joſtling with each other.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he requires of men, produced a total alteration in the religious ſentiments and belief of the civiliſed part of mankind, among whom it rapidly made its way by the ſublimity of its doctrine and precepts. It required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed: but in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of the barbarians by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way; ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror, to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the "*miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*," their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the Reformation. The unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of her doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of her abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects, they are entitled

to our admiration and eſteem; and the reformation, begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England, A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

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# EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe (containing, according to Zimmermann *, 2,627,574 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles), is, in many reſpects, that which moſt deſerves our attention. Here the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and here the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners; and from its hiſtory we derive the greateſt number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world; firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from each other, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece; and we have ſeen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength; and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther; and it is well deſerving our attention. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the deſpotic government of the Turks) was diſtinguiſhed, above all the reſt of Europe, for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitutions,—ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in the other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force and ſoften the rigour of monarchy. In propor-

* See Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.

tion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of rope, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one other. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, t are in Europe *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democr* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the form Holland, Switzerland, and ſome ſtates of Italy, afford examples of latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be affig to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The o mixed governments of Europe are compoſed only of two of the fin forms, ſuch as Poland, and ſeveral ſtates of Italy; all which ſhall be plained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of E rope, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the hum mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, t religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be co prehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek churc 2d, Popery; and, 3d, Proteſtantiſm; which laſt is again divided into L theraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the diſti guiſhed reformers of the ſixteenth century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the ſix following: t Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, a Gothic.

## GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degr weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London, and betwe the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the nort by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Me diterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt, by th Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America; being 3000 mile long, from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby i the north-eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the North Cape in Norway, to Cape Caglia, or Metapan, in the Morea, the moſ ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates:

| | Kingdoms. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief City. | Dist. & Bearing from London. | Difference of Time fr. London. | Religions. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | Miles. | H. M. | |
| British Empire. | England .... | 380 | 300 | London..... | ..... | ..... | Calviniſts, Luth. &c. |
| | Scotland .... | 300 | 150 | Edinburgh .. | 409 N. | 0 12 aft. | Calviniſts, &c. |
| | Ireland..... | 285 | 160 | Dublin ..... | 270 N. W. | 0 26 aft. | Calviniſts & Papiſts. |
| | Norway .... | 1000 | 300 | Bergen ..... | 540 N. | 0 24 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Denmark .... | 240 | 180 | Copenhagen .. | 500 N. E. | 0 50 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Sweden..... | 800 | 500 | Stockholm .. | 750 N. E. | 1 10 bef. | Lutherans. |
| | Ruſſia ..... | 1500 | 1100 | Peterſburgh .. | 1140 N. E. | 2 4 bef. | Greek church. |
| | Poland ..... | 700 | 680 | Warſaw .... | 760 E. | 1 24 bef. | Pap. Luth. & Calv. |
| | K. of Pr. Dom. | 600 | 350 | Berlin ..... | 540 E. | 0 49 bef. | Lutherans & Calvin. |
| | Germany .... | 600 | 500 | Vienna ..... | 600 E. | 1 5 bef | Pap. Luth. & Calv. |
| | Bohemia .... | 300 | 250 | Prague ..... | 600 E. | 1 4 bef. | Papiſts. |
| Seven Unit. Prov. | Holland .... | 150 | 100 | Amſterdam .. | 180 E. | 0 18 bef. | Calviniſts. |
| | Flanders .... | 200 | 200 | Bruſſels..... | 180 S. E. | 0 16 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | France ..... | 600 | 500 | Paris..... | 200 S. E. | 0 9 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Spain ..... | 700 | 550 | Madrid ..... | 800 S. | 0 17 aft. | Papiſts. |
| | Portugal .... | 300 | 100 | Lisbon ..... | 650 S. W. | 0 38 aft. | Papiſts. |
| | Switzerland .. | 260 | 100 | Bern, Coire, &c. | 420 S. E. | 0 28 bef. | Calviniſts & Papiſts. |
| Italy. | Several ſmall ſtates | Piedmont, Monferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, &c. | | | | | |
| | Chief cities. | Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence. | | | | | |
| | Popedom..... | 240 | 120 | Rome ..... | 820 S. E. | 0 52 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Naples ..... | 280 | 120 | Naples ..... | 870 S. E. | 1 0 bef. | Papiſts. |
| | Hungary.... | 300 | 200 | Buda..... | 780 S. E. | 1 17 bef. | Pap. & Proteſtants. |
| Turkey in Europe. | Danubian Provinces .. | 660 | 420 | Conſtantinople | 1320 S. E. | 1 58 bef. | Mahometans and Greek church. |
| | Little Tartary * | 580 | 240 | Precop ..... | 1500 E. | 2 24 bef. | |
| | Greece ..... | 400 | 240 | Athens ..... | 1360 S. E. | 1 37 bef. | |

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia; for the particulars of which, ſee RUSSIA.

Excluſive of the BRITISH ISLES before mentioned, EUROPE contains the following principal ISLANDS.

| ISLANDS. | | Chief Towns | Subject |
|---|---|---|---|
| In the Northern Ocean | Iceland | Skalholt | Denmark |
| Baltic Sea | Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Falſter, Langland, Lapland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm | | Ditto. |
| | Gothland, Aland, Rugen | | Sweden |
| | Oſel, Dagho | | Ruſſia |
| | Uſedom, Wollin | | Pruſſia |
| Mediterranean Sea | Ivica | Ivica | Spain. |
| | Majorca | Majorca | Ditto. |
| | Minorca | Port Mahon | Ditto |
| | Corſica | Baſtia | France |
| | Sardinia | Cagliari | K. of S. |
| | Sicily | Palermo | K. of S. |
| Adriatic or Gulph of Venice | Luſiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Leucadia | | Venice |
| Archipelago and Levant Seas | Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece | | Turkey |

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713; but was beſieged and taken by the Spaniards February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, ſigned at Paris, September 3, 1783. It has ſince been again taken by the Engliſh, November 1798.

## DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions with the moſt northerly ſituations, and divide them into four parts: 1ſt, Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, Iceland, and the iſlands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and, 4th, his German territories.—The dimenſions of theſe countries may be ſeen in the following table.

| DENMARK. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth | Chief Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Denmark Proper | North Jutland | 9,600 | 155 | 98 | Wyburg. |
| | South Jutland, or Sleſwick | 2,115 | 70 | 63 | Sleſwick. |
| Iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea. | Zealand | 1,935 | 60 | 60 | Copenhagen. N. Lat. 55. 4 E. Lon. 12. 4 |
| | Funen | 768 | 38 | 32 | Odenſee. |
| | Falſterland | 220 | 27 | 12 | Nikoping. |
| | Langland | | | | Naxkaw. |
| | Femeren | 50 | 13 | 8 | Borge. |
| | Alſen | 54 | 15 | 6 | Sonderborge. |
| | Mona | 39 | 14 | 5 | Stege. |
| | Bornholm | 160 | 20 | 12 | Roſtcomby. |
| In the North Seas | Iceland Iſland | 46,000 | 435 | 135 | Skalholt. |
| | Norway | 71,400 | 750 | 170 | Bergen. |
| | Daniſh Lapland | 28,400 | 285 | 172 | Wardhuys. |
| Weſtphalia | Oldenburgh | 1,260 | 62 | 32 | Oldenburgh. |
| Lower Saxony | Stormar | 1,000 | 52 | 32 | Gluckſtadt. |
| | Daniſh Holſtein | | | | |
| | | 163,001 | | | |

The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimentions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

## EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

### EAST GREENLAND,

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, or, as ſome call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 11 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. according to Captain Phipps's obſervations in his voyage, 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy mountains) from the height and ruggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have, within the laſt thirty years, formed ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights, reflected from the ſnow, enable them to purſue the chaſe during the long winter's night that reigns in theſe gloomy regions; and they take a great number of ſea-lions, which ſerve them for food. There is a whale fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay. The inland parts are uninhabited.

### WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 53 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 conſtant inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance, in aſpect, manners, and dreſs, between thoſe people and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the endeavours of the Daniſh and German miſſionaries to convert and civiliſe them. They are low of ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour; but they have from any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can alſo uſe their hands with much ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them; and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a large copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh-bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh. The

men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the
work of their boats; and the women cover them with ſkins. The
hunt and fiſh: but when they have towed their booty to land, they
ble themſelves no farther about it; nay it would be accounted be
their dignity even to draw out the fiſh upon the ſhore. The wom
the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and
cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, out of them; ſo that they are likewiſe both
makers and taylors. The women alſo build and repair the houſe
tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpe
work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly ſc
but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of
country, ſays, that in the longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the
continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to thro
their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a
improvable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year e
in fiſhing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particular
catching and killing ſeals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, an
the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is perhaps one of
boldeſt enterpriſes of man. Theſe fields or pieces of ice are frequ
more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs;
when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible:
Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and ot
black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem, on
count of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affo
which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in
pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of
like horſe-hair: and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of
whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones, an
no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between
and 80 feet long; very thick about the head; but grows leſs from the
to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale-ſpout, the word is immediately giv
*a ſall! a ſall!* when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat, ſix
eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually bel
to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with
harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, di
ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him
they did not give him line faſt enough. To prevent the wood of
boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it,
wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hund
fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a te
ble noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing
cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome
the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges ag
into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce h
with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſte
of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in
foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has l
his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and
drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the lan
There they cut him in pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract t
oil, if they have conveniences on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up t

seas, and bring them home: the smell of these ships is almost insufferable. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of East and West Greenland, where these whales are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopolised this fishery. Of late the English have also been very successful in it.

## ICELAND.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and a hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 square miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something rising and flaming in the sea, to the south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distance from the rocks called Oleaux, which afterwards was found to be a new island. The dimensions and situation of this island are not well ascertained; but according to the late information it was still increasing, and great quantities of fire issued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crosiers: and it is conjectured that the people who were there when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterward became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations; but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is styled *Stiftsamtmann*, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of inhabitants in Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times; but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized and well made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fishing and the care of their cattle. On the coasts the men employ their time in fishing both winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise

manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. T
have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and t
themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom
tles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhoul
offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much incl
to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, w
out previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protect
and they are always thankful for their preſervation when they have pa
the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſt
reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt
tinue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playin
cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Someti
a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſt
zas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſion
join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamen
but is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers
women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women d
in the coarſe cloth called Wadmal, and always wear black; thoſe who
in better circumſtances wear broad-cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. T
houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are b
of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed
tween the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters,
ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and leſs e
penſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitche
but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three ſtones, and the ſmo
iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts
dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mix
with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among then
that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months
the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran
The churches in the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are und
the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland), an
thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſlan
is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, an
62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and re
ceive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, ex
cluſive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerl
ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved
pure, that any Icelander underſtands their moſt ancient traditiona
hiſtories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is ſaid that poetry *formerl*
flouriſhed very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skall
grimſon, Kormack Ormundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa, wer
celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe ti
after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in thi
country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Nor
way. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin character
were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts o
ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandiſh biſhop, Iſleif,
founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and ſoon after four other ſchools were
founded, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divi-
nity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. From the introduction of the
Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to

Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had conſiderable knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now ſir Joſeph Banks, preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandiſh manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum. That gentleman viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who, beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhing a printing preſs in Iceland about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic Bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this iſland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country almoſt deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth and produced very fatal effects. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Of theſe burning mountains, Heckla is moſt known to foreigners. This mountain is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle, which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. An eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from the mountain in December 1771, and 1772; but no ſtreams of lava.

But the greateſt of the eruptions of Iceland, and, in fact, the moſt tremendous of any recorded in hiſtory, was that in 1783, which, we are aſſured, on the authority of Mr. Pennant, extended ninety-four miles in length and fifty in breadth, dried up twelve rivers, and overwhelmed not only all the villages it found in its way, but likewiſe many hills. The perpendicular height of the ſides of this current was from eighty to a hundred feet, ſo that the entire ſurface of the country was in a ſtate of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, reſembling a maſs of melted metal.

Among the curioſities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water-ſprings, with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings of Aix-la-Chapelle, Carliſbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and

The reader may consult the table of dimensions in Denmark for its exte which is not, however, well ascertained.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its latitude, a its position toward the sea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and sea is practicable. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly cove with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of Octob and continues, with intense severity, to the middle of April; the wat being all that time frozen to a considerable thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swed who were on their march to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow, the mountain which separates Sweden from Norway; and their bodies we found in different postures. But even frost and snow have their conven ences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the mo northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, th they are but little known. At Bergen the longest day consists of about hours, and the shortest of about five. In summer, the inhabitants can rea and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northern parts, about midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those part however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of ligh at noon for about an hour and a half, owing to the reflection of the sun rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to th Norwegians, that, in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, an the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they carry on their fisher and work at their several trades in the open air.

The air is so pure in some of the inland parts, that it has been said the inhabitants live so long as to be tired of life, and cause themselves to be transported to a less salubrious air. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains, running from south to north; to pass one of which, called the Ardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is supposed to be the highest mountain, perhaps, in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in those mountains are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them, called Dolsteen, was in 1750 visited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests, which furnish foreigners with masts, beams, planks, and boards, and serve beside

for all domeſtic uſes, particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir, and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel, or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comol or ſloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers and the ſituation of their lakes, which afford them not only the conveniency of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, of an incombuſtible nature, the thin fibres of which may be woven into cloth, and cleaned by burning, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granites, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Koningſburgh; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Roraas is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal mines, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh water lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathoms in depth; and its ſcite was inſtantly filled with water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS, AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the marten, and the beaver. The elk is a tall aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and in the winter ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention it more particularly hereafter. The hares are ſmall, and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs;

and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norw
wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelle
hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in w
they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſm
than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have c
like tigers; they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, w
they make dreadful havoc. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valu
as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe foun
Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other count
they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their
in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the ervan, or vielfras, reſembles a turn
dog, with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, whic
variegated, is ſo valuable, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve
ſkin unhurt: he is ſo bold and ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devou
carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburdens his ſtomach by ſqueezing hi
ſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees; and that, when taken, he has b
even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature,
markable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and its fur forms a principal p
even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the mart
and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is ve
fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall have occaſion to mention t
beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. T
elks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the no
of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is that of a large duck; th
are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer th
30 different kinds of thruſhes are found in Norway; with various kin
of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegi
cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eye reſembles th
of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. No
way produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is
ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old. Th
ſea or fiſh-eagle is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic foo
and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unab
to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water, an
drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aërial inhabitants for the coaſt o
Norway, and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitte
for rendering them ſerviceable to the human race. Theſe are the *bird*
men, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepe
rocks, and bring away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritiv
food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is ſometimes eaten by th
peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form
profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern
diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in taking thei
prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in moſt
kinds of fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe. Stock-fiſh
innumerable are dried upon the rocks without ſalting. The haac-moren
is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three
caſks of train oil. The tuella flynda is an exceſſively large turbot,
which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep
him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to the
fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales while following the
herring ſhoals. Of the whale ſeven ſpecies have been remarked: the

large whale reſembles a cod; has ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly; they ſpout up the water, which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe, from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured; that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable ſhoals come from under the ice near the north pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themſelves into three bodies. One of theſe ſupplies the weſtern iſles and coaſts of Scotland; another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain, down the Channel; and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk fiſhes follow them, to feed upon their ſpawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

The fabulous ſea-monſters of antiquity are all equalled, if not exceeded by the wonderful animals, which, according to ſome modern accounts, inhabit the Norwegian ſeas. Among theſe, the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is one of the moſt remarkable, and perhaps the beſt atteſted. In 1756, one of them, it is ſaid, was ſhot by a maſter of a ſhip; its head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hung from its neck; it floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea. Between the head and neck were ſeven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this ſnake was more than a hundred yards, ſome ſay, fathoms. They are ſaid to have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon, ſhip, boat, and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The particulars related of this animal, however incredible, have been atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very repatable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; and that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and his excrement, which floats on the ſurface of the water, to be corroſive, and bliſter the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

The exiſtence of the kraken, or korken, is likewiſe ſtrongly aſſerted

it is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and that when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes ſport, and ſea weeds grow; upon his farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; by the action and re-action of which he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, we are told, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended with ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where he died was impaſſable.

The mer-men and mer-women are likewiſe ſaid to have their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but it is not eaſy to give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans long, and is deſcribed as bearing nearly the ſame reſemblance as an ape does to the human ſpecies. It has a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane. The parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones.

Curiosities.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the Navel of the Sea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and at ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent, ſo violent, that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence, ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible, and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs into which they are to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror when the found the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellow-

ing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the Gulf of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY.] The Norwegians are a people of an intermediate character between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops, as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian modes of living greatly reſemble thoſe of the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few who are by profeſſion hatters, ſhoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle ſtate prolongs their lives ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any covering upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon, why he died? whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him? and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended him.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the ſervice of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l.; and, till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it drew from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful peo and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we may believe their hiſtor they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſce and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now moſt loyal, ſubjects in Europe: their former character is no doubt be aſcribed to the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a parate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with thoſe Denmark.

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## DENMARK* PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of t ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| | MILES. | | DEGREES. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length - - - - - | 240† | between | 54 and 38 north latitude. |
| Breadth - - - - - | 114 | | 8 and 11 eaſt longitude. |

Containing 15,744 ſquare miles, with 139 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the north from Norway by th Scaggerac Sea, and from Sweden on the eaſt b the Sound; it is bounded on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; an the German Sea divides it from Great Britain on the weſt.

Denmark Proper is divided into two parts; the peninſula of Jutland anciently called *Cherſoneſus Cimbrica*, and the iſlands at the entrance o the Baltic mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that, though a theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one o them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of th largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number o ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported int Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide ha fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſid being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath fo fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes o water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapour from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts o Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat t cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the north ern provinces of Denmark, the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inha

* See Mallet's Denmark, p. 1, to 18, vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt,—a method which the author has every where obſerved; and it ſeems to be the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the readers will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

bitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all the harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery, ſo that they were bought and ſold with their lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleſwick and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark or Holſtein happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his landlord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he may think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of the horned cattle, 30,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS] By an actual enumeration made, in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee; by which,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Jutland numbered | 358,136 | Iceland | 46,201 |
| Zealand | 283,466 | Duchy of Sleſwick | 243,605 |
| Funen | 143,988 | Duchy of Holſtein | 134,665 |
| Norway | 723,141 | Oldenburgh | 62,854 |
| Iſlands of Ferro | 4,754 | Delmenhorſt | 16,217 |

Sum total 2.017.027

Several of the ſmaller iſlands included in the diſtrict of Fionia, which may contain a few thouſands, are omitted in this computation.

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark has been ſo ſhackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of its miniſters, and the merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of the government, that this kingdom, which

might be rendered rich and flouriſhing, is at preſent one of the moſt digent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe; and theſe circumſtances prev Denmark from being ſo populous as it otherwiſe would be, were adminiſtration of government more mild and equitable, and proper couragement given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agricultu and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of coura which approached even to ferocity; but, by a continual ſeries of tyr ny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed, and fr a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indole timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They value themſelves extrem upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, a are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhow. They endeavour to imit the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; thou they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. The Danes, li other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and co vivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to viſit t other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits a vices.

Religion.] The religion of Denmark is Lutheran; and the king dom is divided into ſix dioceſes: one in Zealand, one in Funen, a four in Jutland; beſides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. The dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe duty it is to ſuperintend th other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than diſtinction in their eccleſiaſtical dreſs; for they have neither cathedrals no eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: thei morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people. The are paid by the ſtate, the church lands having been appropriated to th government at the reformation.

Language and learning.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; an the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A com pany of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents: theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars. But the Danes in general have made no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, and the Bartholines: and the Round Tower and Chriſtian's Haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now, however, to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. But it appears, that, in general, literature re-ceives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be conſidered as the principal cauſe of its being ſo little cultivated by the Danes.

Cities and chief buildings.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number: and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in the lanes chiefly of timber. Its

university has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. Yet, notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, there is little appearance of induſtry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, cannot boaſt of its commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually almoſt as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

The royal palace of Chriſtiansburg, one of the moſt commodious and moſt ſumptuouſly furniſhed in Europe, was built in the reign of Chriſtian VI. and is ſaid to have coſt, in building only, conſiderably above a milion ſterling; but this palace was reduced to a heap of aſhes by a dreadful fire, which happened on the 26th of February 1794. The royal library, which ſtood detached from the principal pile, and contained between two and three hundred thouſand volumes, was, however, fortunately preſerved. The fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about twenty Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederickſburgh. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian IV. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars; and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with twelve windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhown the very ſpot where, according to tradition, that prince was poiſoned.

Jagersburg is a park which contains a royal country ſeat called the Hermitage, remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments and the quaintneſs of its furniture, particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

Elſineur is well built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with reſpect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly fortified on the land ſide, and towards the ſea is defended by a ſtrong fort, con-

taining ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, a in paſſing, lower their top-ſails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burde and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different pa of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a gr variety of timber and other materials for ſhip-building; and ſome his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Amo theſe, beſide fir and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſto fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the na ral product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked un the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportati of oats is forbidden. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy, and ſilk, fr France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had great int courſe with England, and from thence they import broad-cloths, cloc cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the gr trading towns of England; but nothing ſhows the commercial ſpirit the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in t Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark eſtabliſhed an Eaſt-India co pany at Copenhagen; and ſoon after four ſhips ſailed from thence the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſ by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and, i 1617, they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on t coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians fou under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to ſettle here ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt-India company were ſoon rich enough to pa their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company how ever, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured t poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice trade at Ceylon, but were defeated b the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with th native Indians on all hands: and had it not been for the generous a ſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, th ſettlement of Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tan jore. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charle XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt-India company found themſelves ſ much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription fo enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tran quebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty grante a new charter to his Eaſt-India company, with vaſt privileges; an for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. Th Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and th ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports, an notorious for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt o Guinea. They alſo carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Medi terranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings, and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the con ſuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet

of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunting horn; that of gold ſeems to be of pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; they ſay it was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the north of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments, ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, the anceſtors of the greater part of the modern Engliſh.

Perhaps, however, the greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians, and are generally thought to exhibit the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, or waxen tablets, were known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stefanius, in his notes upon Saxo Grammaticus, has given ſpecimens of ſeveral of theſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS. The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally much the ſame with that of other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate, where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided finally all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates, who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, of that of the citizens and farmers. After the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other. The crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances; and when the Roman-catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppreſs and tyranniſe over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavour-

ing in an imprudent manner to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion. It his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, by uniting himſe with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, thoug the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. A length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, the people, inſtead of exertin themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintai their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, i hopes to render themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſ wretched a condition, that the public had not money for paying off th army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the no bles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for re lief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobi lity; and in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting o the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more than *ſlaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, *the* ſpeaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *ſlavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, thus ſurpriſed, were compelled reluctantly to ſubmit.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act, by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and inveſted the king with abſolute power, giving him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion, and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their right, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. The king united in his perſon all the rights of ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects. The ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein, is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick, in the town of that name.

In affairs of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. In this council, the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the ſanction of the royal authority, and all great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed,

and approved or rejected by the king. Here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or reſtriction, and upon all the moſt important affairs of ſtate.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in his ſupreme court; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, as do the judges in delivering their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark: but, notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility, or againſt one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have ſince been publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can alter and diſpenſe with the laws as he pleaſes, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people of Denmark are ſubject to great tyranny and oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and ſervility with which their liberties were, in 1660, ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

From that period, the peaſants, till 1787, had been in a ſituation little better than the brute creation; they ſcarcely could be ſaid to poſſeſs any loco-motive power, ſince they had no liberty to leave one eſtate, and to ſettle on another, without purchaſing permiſſion from their maſters; and if they chanced to move without that permiſſion, they were claimed as ſtrayed cattle. Such was the ſtate of thoſe wretched beings, who, at beſt, only might be ſaid to vegetate. Theſe chains of feudal ſlavery were then broken, through the intereſt of his royal highneſs, the prince and heir apparent to the crown; and the priſoners, for ſuch they certainly might be called, were declared free. Notwithſtanding the remonſtrances, which were made againſt this by the landed gentry, were very numerous, yet, after a minute examination of the whole, an edict was iſſued which reſtores the peaſants to their long-loſt liberty. A number of grievances, under which the peaſantry laboured, were likewiſe aboliſhed at the ſame time.

Punishments.] The common methods of execution in Denmark are beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For the moſt atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, huſband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital puniſhments are not common in Denmark; and the other principal modes of puniſh-

ment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe to houſes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL HISTORY OF DENMARK.] After the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war, but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connexions with Great-Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army: but his family diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendancy which the French had obtained over the Swedes (not to mention many other matters), did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation, eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enabled her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her naval ſtores.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but there is at preſent ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms and tolls, upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtait of half a mile between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip, and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expences of the light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes who command

the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great-Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates:

| | Rix-dollars at 4s. each. |
|---|---|
| Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax | 1,000,000 |
| Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, marriages, &c. | 950,000 |
| Cuſtom-houſe duties | 154,000 |
| Duties of the Sound | 200,000 |
| Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits | 27,000 |
| Tithes and poll-tax of Norway | 770,000 |
| Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana | 160,000 |
| Other tolls | 552,000 |
| Revenue from mines | 300,000 |
| Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, Oldenburg, and Delmenhorſt | 690,000 |
| Taxes on acorns and maſt from beech | 20,000 |
| Tolls on the Weſer | 7,500 |
| Poſt-office | 70,000 |
| Farms of Iceland and Ferro | 35,000 |
| Farms of Bornholm | 14,800 |
| Oyſter Fiſhery | 22,000 |
| Stamp-paper | 40,000 |
| Sum total, | 5,012,300 |

In Engliſh money, £.1,002,460

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to Engliſh money £.454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of the people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they kept up with a vaſt care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which is a militia who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army-liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown; great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. The preſent fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates;

but many of the ſhips being old, and wanting great repairs, it is ſuppoſed they cannot fit out more than 25 ſhips on the greateſt emergency. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have 26,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings per month; but they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodging allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Dancburg*. The former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky blue watered ribbond, worn, like the George in England, over the right ſhoulder; the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addreſſed by the title of Excellency. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to have been inſtituted in the year 1219, and, after being long obſolete, revived in 1671 by Chriſtian V. conſiſt of a white ribbond with red edges, worn ſcarf-wiſe over the right ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto *Pietate et Juſtitia*. The badge is a croſs pattee enamelled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto, *Reſtitutor*. The number of knights is not limited; and they are very numerous.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phenomenon; the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, had adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military achievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden), were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people of theſe countries are ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This undoubtedly was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land, and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars: ſee the Introduction), whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, ſo late as the 13th century, to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe. Hence, by ſir William Temple and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe*.

Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature under that prince throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial; that, ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and, partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, loſt its effect; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. In the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. one of the greateſt tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew. He embraced the opinions of Luther; and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark by that wiſe and politic prince, Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredericſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild, by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Schonen, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic fought to elude theſe ſevere terms: but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land.

The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic under theſe misfortunes endeared him to his ſubjects: and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhowed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and, having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital, by which the iſland of Bornholm was reſtored to the Danes; but the iſlands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded, in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen: but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war, which Chriſtian obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landſcroon: and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian afterwards became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains, and, after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1690. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein, and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates, and afterwards took a very active part againſt the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon Swediſh Pomerania, and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, and his favourite city of Altena was laid in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf by ſeizing great part of Ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with the moſt implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, who was

killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden: in conſequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having, two years before, ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made the beſt uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

*In* 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic Sanction *, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. In 1738, he had a diſpute with his Britannnic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein-Lawenburg, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt, in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions; for the latter agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000*l.* ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover. This was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to the crown of Sweden. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken; but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan for the happineſs of his people, and took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. It was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Caroline-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. When the princeſs Carolina-Ma-

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

tilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct ſhe became the depoſitory of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time it is ſaid ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot and debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much inclined: and at length it was ſo ordered, that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda, and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This irritated the old queen; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge, which ſhe at length found means to gratify in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter; and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head and patroneſs of the party. Old count Molke, an artful diſplaced ſtateſman, and others who were well verſed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had inexperienced young perſons to contend with, who, though they might mean well, had not ſufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very ſoon predicted their ruin. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies, among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the former footing. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe immediately turned back, and, with a malicious ſmile, declared that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee; which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated againſt the reigning queen; and another report was alſo induſtriouſly ſpread, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo attempted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome of the crea-

tures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions; his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the meaſures proper to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon or dethrone the king; and if that could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Molke, and moſt of the queen dowager's friends, who had any thing to loſe, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excuſing themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, went with the queen dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Lichſtedt, and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre to awake him; and, in the midſt of the ſurpriſe and alarm that this unexpected intruſion excited, informed him that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to ſign; and that the only means he could uſe to prevent ſo imminent a danger was to ſign thoſe orders, without loſs of time, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and heſitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were diſpatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which ſhe was conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburg, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, ſome of his adherents, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which

prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to ex
mine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs agai
them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, who was enter
into the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of qua
ty, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of t
queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and ve
rigorouſly treated in priſon: they both underwent long and freque
examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were b
headed on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly c
off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards ſet at l
berty. Struenſee at firſt abſolutely denied having any criminal inte
courſe with the queen: but this he afterwards confeſſed: and though h
is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of to
ture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, an
his confeſſions full and explicit. In May, his Britannic majeſty ſent
ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convey that princeſs to Germany, and ap
pointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of he
future reſidence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th o
May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality pro
poſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch
debility of underſtanding as to diſqualify him for the proper manage
ment of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court re
volution took place. The queen dowager's friends were removed,
new council formed under the auſpices of the prince-royal, ſome of th
former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be pai
for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counter
ſigned by the prince royal.

The conduct of this prince is ſtamped with that conſiſtency of beha
viour which enables him to purſue, with unremitting zeal, the pruden
and benevolent meaſures which he has planned for the benefit of his grate
ful country. The reſtoration of the peaſantry to their long-loſt liberty
and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have al
ready been mentioned. To theſe may be added the exertions he make
for the general diffuſion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to ſo
cieties of learning, arts, and ſcience; the excellent meaſures he ha
adopted for the ſuppreſſion of beggars, with whom the country was over
run; and the encouragement of induſtry, by the moſt extenſive inquiries
into the ſtate of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wiſe regulations
he has introduced into the corn trade, equally beneficial to the landed in
tereſt and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence
have been made to encourage foreigners to ſettle in Iceland. The princeſs
of Heſſe-Caſſel, his conſort, is ſaid to poſſeſs the moſt amiable diſpoſitions
and goodneſs of heart.

Count Schimmelmann, miniſter of ſtate finances and commerce, has the
merit of accompliſhing the abolition of the ſlave-trade among the ſubjects
of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February,
1792, and is to be gradual; and in 1803 all trade in negroes is to ceaſe on
the part of the Daniſh ſubjects. The diſintereſtedneſs of this miniſter, who
poſſeſſes large eſtates in the Daniſh Weſt-India iſlands, recommends his
exertions to greater praiſe. The above ordinance does not ſeem to have
cauſed any diſcontent in Denmark among the Weſt-India merchants, and
it is not thought it will cauſe any in the iſlands.

A ſcheme for defraying the national debt has been ſuggeſted and fol-
lowed. One million has already been diſcharged.

Denmark, to its honour, formally refuſed to join in the alliance of potentates againſt France.

Chriſtian VII reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F.R.S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princeſs Caroline-Matilda of England; and has iſſue—1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princeſs Mary-Anne-Frederica, of Heſſe.—2. Louiſa-Auguſta, princeſs-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleſwick-Holſtein, by whom ſhe has iſſue.

Brothers and ſiſters to the king.—1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746; married to the late king of Sweden, Guſtavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1, 1764, William, the preſent prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—3. Louiſa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.—4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

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## His Danish Majesty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia (termed Ducal Holſtein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubec; but on the 16th of November, 1773, Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it, with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation, on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built in that ſituation, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt-India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itſelf.

The famous city of Hamburg is ſituated on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe: and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants is ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it contains a variety of noble edifices, both public and private. It has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town; and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with which it carries on a conſiderable trade, which has been very greatly increaſed in conſequence of the war with France and Holland. The Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, once the capital of the

Hanſe towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy, is governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh-churches, beſi large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the w duchy.

In WESTPHALIA; the king of Denmark has the counties of Ol burg and Delmenhorſt, containing about two thouſand ſquare miles; lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals have the ſame na the firſt has the remains of a fortification, and the laſt is an open pl Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh jeſty. The country abounds with marſhes and heaths; its horſes are beſt in Germany.

## LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, quire that it ſhould be treated of under a diſtinct head, and in the ſa method obſerved with reſpect to other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME. } The whole country of Lapl extends, ſo far as it is kno from the North Cape in 71° 30′ N. lat. to the White Sea, under arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt to the Ruſſians. The dim ſions of each of theſe parts are by no means accurately aſcertained. eſtimate of that belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of menſions given in the account of Sweden; but other accounts ſay th it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth: it comp hends all the country from the Baltic to the mountains that ſeparate N way from Sweden. The Ruſſian part lies towards the eaſt, between t lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding t rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts, generally ta ing their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regul government. Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſider by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought th the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their ow country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exil The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily co ceive, that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſet and during winter it never riſes; but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted b the twilight and the aurora-borealis, that they never diſcontinue the work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be froz to the cup in attempting to drink; and, in ſome thermometers, ſpirits wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mo tify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover th ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place; and then th froſt that ſucceeds preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, ov which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftnes The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataract which daſh from the mountains often preſent to the eye the moſt pictu reſque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS. } Lapland is a vaſt maſs of moun tains, irregularly crowded together

they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations, and are believed by the natives to have been the terreſtrial paradiſe: even roſes and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper, and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in the rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as the animals are common to all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is highly eſteemed. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however, of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*, which nature ſeems to have provided to recompenſe the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat ſtoops the head, and the horns project forward. All who have deſcribed this animal have taken notice of the crackling noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes makes the extraordinary width of the rein-deer's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant however the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping noiſe. Probably the crackling which they perpetually make may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs; which they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding, and, when found, ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down; with the reins, which are faſtened to the horns of the animal, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver

is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out f
their own provender; and their milk often helps to support their mafte
Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, ca
only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the coun
try during the ſummer months, when they live in the woods. The
fleſh is a well-taſted food, whether freſh or dried; their ſkin forms e
cellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; their milk and chee
are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply the
maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild
the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid, that
one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample hi
to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally choſen. With a
their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconve
niences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling: they a
ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to th
great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (f
they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a day) ſeems to be owin
to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Lap
lander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he
confined in one of theſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, tha
by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſti
nation.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Lap
landers is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that
is with difficulty they underſtand each other. They have neither writ
ing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, whic
they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they call Piſtave
and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are al
the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Mi
ſionaries from the Chriſtianiſed parts of Scandinavia introduced amon
them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to b
Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminarie
inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole, the majority o
the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are to b
found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that the
ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddi
ties of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believ
that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe thei
magicians make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowe
trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with
ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of the
own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtar
birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which
when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures
and, according to their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. The
frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the norther
ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that the
often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knot
by opening of which according to the magician's directions, they a
told they may obtain what wind they want. This is alſo a very com
mon traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great a
dreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotte
taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of ſeveral of th
Teutonic gods, and have among them many remains of the Druidic

inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul, and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from which they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some of them poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one has ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the Woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chaſe: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after the rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chaſe, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and tanning hides; but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen, in which it is ſaid the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them, according to the ſeaſon and the means of the poſſeſſor, ſome with briars, bark of birch or of linden,—others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to ſeparate the apartments, place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin or even ſilver baſons; to which may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about ſix feet from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and provi-

ſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plunder
The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of th
proviſions: the chaſe and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their princi
diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make
their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, in
the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which th
cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them
their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſe
dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of pr
and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fle
and fiſh dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without a
ſort of dreſſing. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed wi
milk; they make alſo broths and fiſh-ſoups. Brandy is very ſcarce wi
them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclin
to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a carpet on the ground; and t
men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhe
Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a litt
cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that
perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after t
meal they make a ſhort prayer; and as ſoon as they have done eatin
each gives the other his hand.

In their dreſs, the Laplanders uſe no kind of linen. The men we
cloſe breeches, reaching down to their ſhoes, which are made of untan
ned ſkin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a litt
hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at th
breaſt. Over this they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves, the ſkir
of which reach down to the knees, and which is faſtened round the
by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To thi
girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for making fire, thei
pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoaking apparatus. Their clothes a
made of fur, of leather, or of cloth: the cloſe coat of cloth or leathe
always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colour
Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorne
with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The women we
breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as th
men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements fo
ſmoaking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. The
cloſe coat has a collar, which comes up ſomewhat higher than that
the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons
made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to whic
they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three time
round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manne
of turbands. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head: an
as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with th
embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of i
ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,00
Both men and women are in general conſiderably ſhorter than mo
ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman who was ſuckli
her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about
half; they make however a much more agreeable appearance than th
men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for the
bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, often well made, and e
tremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although no
ſarely. It frequently happens that a Lapland woman will faint a

or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming; in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxiſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and, on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry, he, or his friends, court the father of the fair one with brandy; and when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable, which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from the father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy; and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel-ſkins, or one fox-ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and never being, ſo far as we know, employed in any army.

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# SWEDEN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 800 | between | 56 and 69 North Latitude. |
| Breadth 500 | | 10 and 30 Eaſt Longitude. |

Containing 220,000 ſquare miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. THIS country is bounded by the Baltic ſea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two laſt provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland; and, 7. The Swediſh iſlands. The Lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.



135867

| Sweden. | Square Miles. 76,835 | Sum Total. 228,715 | Length. | Breadth. | Capital Cities. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sweden Proper ..... | 47,900 | | 342 | 194 | Stockholm, N. Lat. 59—30 E. Lon. 19—15. |
| Gothland ..... | 25,975 | | 253 | 160 | Calmar. |
| Schonen ..... | 2,960 | 76,835 | 77 | 56 | Lunden. |
| Lapland and W. Bothnia ..... | 76,000 | | 420 | 340 | Torne, Uma. |
| Swediſh Finland and Eaſt Bothnia ..... | 73,000 | | 395 | 225 | Abo, Cajenburgh. |
| Gothland I. ..... | 1,000 | | 80 | 23 | Wiſby. |
| Oeland I. ..... | 560 | 150,560 | 84 | 9 | Borkholm. |
| Upper Saxony { Pomerania, P. | 960 | | 47 | 24 | Straiſund. |
| Upper Saxony { Rugen I. .... | 360 | | 24 | 21 | Bergen. |
| | | 1,320 | | | |

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Uplandia, | Helſingia, |
| Sudermania, | Dalecarlia, |
| Weſtmania, | Medelpedia, |
| Nericia, | Angermania, |
| Geſtricia, | Jemptia. |

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Gothland, | Dalia, |
| Weſt Gothland, | Schonen, |
| Smalan, | Bleking, |
| Wermeland, | Halland. |

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Thorne Lapmark, | Pithia Lapmark, |
| Kimi Lapmark, | Uma Lapmark, |
| Lula Lapmark. | |

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea:

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Eaſt Bothnia, | Nyland, |
| Cajania, | Travaſtia, |
| Savoloxia, | Finland Proper. |

The Swediſh iſles are, Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is nearly ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

Climate and seasons, soil, and productions. In Sweden ſummer burſts ſuddenly from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been diſcovered, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much

the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer the fields are verdant and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſpberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces cryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however, ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt-mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting-houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that, from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of the ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000l. ſterling: It is ſuppoſed that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that the exactions of the Swediſh government, the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] A few leagues from Gottenburgh there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity from the height, into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, precipitated down it, diſappear for near an hour before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern parts of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. In the univerſity of Upſal is preſerved the famous *Codex Argenteus*, a manuſcript, with ſilver letters, of a Gothic tranſlation of the Goſpels, by Ulphilas, a biſhop of the Goths in Mœſia, who lived about 1300 years ago. It is very ancient and very imperfect, but equally curious and valuable, becauſe it contains all that remains of the ancient Gothic language, the venerable parent of the Runic, the old Teutonic, and the Anglo-Saxon; and, conſequently, of the modern Engliſh, German, Daniſh, Swediſh, and Icelandic languages.

*Seas.*] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Fin-

land, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are th Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divid Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in th year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean; never mixing with it, becauſe current ſets always out of the Baltic Sea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſ already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark. The Swediſh horſes ar more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, whe carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country, a appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on ſmall gold plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. Th fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden are the ſame with thoſ in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that ſevera ſorts of them, pikes in particular, are ſalted and pickled for exportation The train-oil of the ſeals taken in the gulf of Finland, is a conſiderabl article of exportation,

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The character of th Swedes has differed greatly in different ages; nor is it very uniform At preſent their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men ſtrong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſt ing themſelves and their families as well as they can: the mercantil claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but great application and perſever ance is diſcovered among them all. It ſeems difficult, however, t conceive that the modern Swedes are deſcendants of thoſe, who, under Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their name through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt em pires. The intrigues of their ſenators drew them to take part in th war, called the ſeven-years' war, againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviou was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hoſpitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. The women go to the plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongſt them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and had ſuch an averſion to popery, that caſtration was the fate of every Roman-catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400L. a year, and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuper intendents, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direc tion in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals and the ſanctity of their lives endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious economy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite

literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, who contributed ſo eminently to the improvement of ſeveral branches of natural knowledge, particularly botany. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature is well known; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of ſcience. Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patroniſed by ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge, five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called, by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education, and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents on the admiſſion to their degrees, would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts, upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evince the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors. Among the works of this ſort, which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that maſter.

There is another univerſity at Abo in Finland, but not ſo well endowed, nor ſo flouriſhing; and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity*.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils

* An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of Memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and
Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late
the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to
Hanſe towns, and bought it back again manufactured into uten
About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Du
and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactories of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, wo
lens, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Bookſelling was at t
time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baki
tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian,
other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and g
powder-mills. Vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are n
wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forges
fire-arms and anchors; armouries, wire and flatting-mills; mills
for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have bu
many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called ſtaple-town
where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities i
their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce
though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind ar
termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes
about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed
their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off, in Swediſh ſhips;
the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act, like that of the Engliſh.
Theſe promiſing appearances were, however, fruſtrated by the improper
management and jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom: it ſtands
about 760 miles North-eaſt of London, upon ſeven ſmall rocky iſlands,
beſides two peninſulas, and is built upon piles. It ſtrongly impreſſes a
ſtranger with its ſingular and romantic ſcenery. A variety of contraſted
and enchanting views are formed by numberleſs rocks of granite, riſing
boldly from the ſurface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly
dotted with houſes, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is
ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, is an inlet of the
Baltic: the water is clear as cryſtal, and of ſuch depth that ſhips of the
largeſt burthen can approach the quay, which is of conſiderable breadth,
and lined with ſpacious buildings and warehouſes. At the extremity of
the harbour ſeveral ſtreets riſe one above another, in the form of an am-
phitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the ſummit.
Towards the ſea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is
contracted into a narrow ſtrait, and, winding among high rocks, diſap-
pears from the ſight; the proſpect is terminated by diſtant hills, over-
ſpread with foreſts. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pen-
cil, to delineate theſe ſingular views. The central iſland, from which
the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handſomeſt parts
of the town.

Excepting in the ſuburbs, where the houſes are of wood, painted red,
the generality of the buildings are of ſtone, or brick ſtuccoed white.
The royal palace, which ſtands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon
the higheſt ſpot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large
quadrangular ſtone edifice, and the ſtyle of architecture is both elegant
and magnificent *.

The number of houſekeepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is
furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for
manufactures and commerce that are common to other great European

* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 450,000l. ſterling.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, Charles XII. who was killed in 1781, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter Ulrica, who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders; nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, becauſe the king's prerogative was more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate; which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner. The nobility, or upper-houſe, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand-marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable to the ſtates for his conduct in the ſenate. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican; for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the civil, military, commercial, and other departments. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the late king, in the moſt unexpected manner. The circumſtances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our hiſtory of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, inſtead of

having the particular defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king may aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes: he has the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though he cannot openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and, in caſe of invaſion or preſſing neceſſity, he may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled; but of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends wholly upon his will and pleaſure; and when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to perceive, that a government thus conſtituted can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. Yet, in order to amuſe the nation with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the regal power in the new ſyſtem of government; but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid, indeed, that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates: but the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common methods of execution in Sweden are beheading and hanging: for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered; women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes; ſuch as murder, houſe-breaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment and hard labour, either for life or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion, till the reign of the late king; but in 1773 his Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

POLITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance firſt took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards Sweden alſo entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France

by degrees acquired an aſcendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a ſubſidy from France for above 100 years paſt, and has ſuffered greatly by it. During the reigns of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the war with the king of Pruſſia, uſually called the ſeven-years' war, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented; ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their ableſt ſtateſmen have perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connexion with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it; but the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet, in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it went under the denomination of the *Hats*. The object held out to the nation was the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon was to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connexion with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued; but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſts of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful; but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendancy. Theſe parties, however, are now annihilated, in conſequence of the late king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of the government.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places diſunited from that kingdom, contain about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly the crown lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced one million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, are extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d.; but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie in circulation: large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes, being almoſt their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces principally conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates;

and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to fin proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it conta every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum is charged with a foot ſoldier, niſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 2 year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the far who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſub to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It therefore literally be ſaid that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in country he defends. In 1791 the ſtanding regiments amounted 13,500 infantry and 1,000 cavalry; and the national troops to 22,500 fantry, 7,000 cavalry, and 3,500 dragoons*. Sweden formerly co have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years their ſhips, toge with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to decay.

ROYAL STYLE.] The King's ſtyle is, King of the Goths and Vand great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] Theſe are the order of the *North Polar Star*, conſiſting of twenty-four members; the order of *Waſa*; and order of the *Sword*: the laſt created in 1772.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of t country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have h the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern n tions of Europe. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius, biſh of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swed hiſtory.

The hiſtory of this kingdom, and indeed of all the northern nati even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſtin and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, a ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency till about the middle the fourteeth century, when it aſſumes a more regular appearance. this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from bein clearly aſcertained or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſr garded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of th wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce bein unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude an imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified ran from the great reſpect paid to their character among the inhabitants the North, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, an obtained poſſeſſion of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nob lity. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate formed a council, called the Senate, which deliberated on all publ affairs. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſenſions betwee their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indo lent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and, what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroad and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who, b their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themſelves the diſſenſions of Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſitu ation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under

* *Voyage de deux Français dans le Nord de l'Europe*, 5 tom. 8vo. 1796.

minal ſubjection to its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladiſlaus, crowned in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who ever ſat on the Swediſh throne: by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power: and whilſt, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of the nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted, he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great confuſion.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Haguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to the throne of the latter in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North; by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince deſcended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignaliſed his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was ſet upon his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped under the diſguiſe of a peaſant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the braſs-mines to prevent being diſcovered, he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence; but at length ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by univerſal conſent,

and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were mu more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed t dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles had freed him from thoſe pr and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular vernment in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful th dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to p vail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of t country; and the exerciſe of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibi in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet be relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all g vernments, and, when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all gover ments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regu monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſibl arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation a commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civil improvements were intr duced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, b gan to be formidable by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all pu lic treaties and deliberations.

Guſtavus died in 1559, while his eldeſt ſon Eric was preparing to em bark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditar Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced them to ta up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 156 His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war wi Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh th catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for tha purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by hi brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. His ſon Sigiſmun was choſen king of Poland in 1587; upon which he endeavoured aga to reſtore the Roman-catholic religion in his dominions; but he died i 1592.

Charles, brother to John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; an being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew Sigiſmund endeavoured to driv him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he an his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which wa conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through th practices of Sigiſmund, who was a powerful prince, and at the head of great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave th Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checke by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, heir apparent to the crown of Sweden though then a minor. Upon the death of his father, which happened i 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in hi eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, en gaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages, a which he ſurmounted. He had nearly rendered himſelf ſovereign o Ruſſia. In 1617, he made a peace under the mediation of James I. o England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the pre fecture of Novogorod, with which he likewiſe received a ſum o money.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a v deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gard one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His t

had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterpriſing ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom he defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant princes placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes. After taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to the command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in view ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſtiern was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, 1648, which gave a new ſyſtem to the affairs of Europe.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men, to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a

ſubſidy from the French king Lewis XIV.; but perceiving the liber
of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he ente
into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joi
with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being defeated in G
many at Felem Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt h
The elector of Brandenburg made himſelf maſter of Swediſh Por
rania; the Biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verden, and
Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were af
wards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, which
lowed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſo
places in Germany. He then married Ulrica-Leonora, the king
Denmark's ſiſter; but made a baſe uſe of the tranquillity he had regain
by employing his army to enſlave his people. The ſtates loſt all th
power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark.
ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputi
to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtran
in favour of his countrymen; but he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Char
became ſo powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwic
1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, t
famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known th
that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majori
to eighteen; but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the manageme
of count Piper, who became in conſequence his firſt miniſter. So
after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar
Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged b
the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He entered in
a war with them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace
Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein w
re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at that time r
vaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narv
The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was h
impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed th
main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſu
ceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed h
actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxon
where his warlike achievements equalled if they did not excel thoſe
Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland; bu
ſtained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a deat
equally cruel and ignominous. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown
Poland in 1705, and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he wa
courted by all the powers of Europe, and among others by the duke
Marlborough in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of h
ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſitio
however, were ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light tha
that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt, in the battle of Pultow
1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more tha
all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and h
was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actio
there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,00
Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks foun
it, however, convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. But h
misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return
his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he wa
killed by a cannon ſhot, as it is generally ſaid, at the ſiege of Frederi

hall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Frederickſhall, but that a piſtol, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent among the beſt informed perſons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful and pernicious war, nor would ever have conſented to reſtore tranquillity to his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband. Their firſt care was to make peace with Great-Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many and great ſacrifices to obtain peace from theſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom under the name of the *Hats*, which has already been mentioned, and which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was at the ſame time the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all his reſentment, and forget the indignity done to his ſon. The ſucceſſor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia, and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much haraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the late king, who poſſeſſed abilities greatly ſuperior to thoſe of his father.

Guſtavus was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his underſtanding had been much cultivated; he had an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of

the death of his predeceſſor, an extraordinary diet was called to late the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the nation-oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28 March, 1772, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve ty-four articles relative to his future adminiſtration of govern This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were th lowing: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the govern of the kingdom, as now eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and ties of the ſtates, the liberty and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and con able to the preſent act of capitulation. In conſequence of the d ation of the ſtates, the king will regard any perſon who ſhall ly or clandeſtinely endeavour to introduce abſolute ſovereignty a enemy to the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, ſince every p muſt take an oath to this purpoſe before he can receive poſſeſſio any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and ſenate, the king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720 on that head, according to which they are to be directed always majority of votes, and he engages never to act without, and much againſt, their advice. To the end that the council of ſtate may much the more convinced of the inviolable deſigns of his majeſty, a his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be en diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe that he wilfully acts trary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And laſtly king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure who ſha ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power ſplendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his ma deſires only to ſecure the affections of his faithful ſubjects, and to be powerful defender againſt any attempts which may be made upon lawful liberties."

But ſcarcely had the king taken theſe ſolemn oaths to rule accor to the then eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the cr upon theſe conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he th proper; regarding theſe oaths only as matters of ceremony. He u uſe of every art, the moſt profound diſſimulation, and the utmoſt terity and addreſs, in order to render this hazardous enterpriſe ſuc ful. On his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method w could increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him; it was ſufficien have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay fore him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability. entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them: he info himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in happineſs. This conduct cauſed him to be conſidered as truly the ther of his people, and the Swedes began to idoliſe him. In the time there happened ſome contentions between the different orde the Swediſh ſtates; and no methods were left untried to foment jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the k dom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitant rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of e ing them to an inſurrection. At length, when the king found ſcheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper meaſures for t

ing a conſiderable number of the officers and ſoldiers * into his intereſt, on the 19th of Auguſt, 1772, he totally overturned the Swediſh conſtitution of government. In leſs than an hour he made himſelf maſter of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden of the tranſaction in which the king was engaged, till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers ſtood over theſe with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a paſſport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments of the palace; and many others who were ſuppoſed to be zealouſly attached to the liberties of Sweden were put under arreſt. The remainder of the day the king employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were alſo tendered the next day to the public in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring that his only intention was to reſtore tranquillity to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the ariſtocratic form of government, reviving the old Swediſh liberty, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute "power, or what is called *ſovereignty*, eſteeming it now, as before, my "greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town to proclaim an aſſembly of the ſtates for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet ſhould abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare where the houſe of nobles ſtands. The palace was inveſted on all ſides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court facing the hall where the ſtates were to be aſſembled. Theſe were not only charged, but ſoldiers ſtood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The ſeveral orders of the ſtates were here compelled to aſſemble by the king's command; and theſe military preparations were made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations. The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, ordered a ſecretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the ſtates for their acceptance. As they were ſurrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, ſigned the form of government; and the ſtates took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himſelf. This extraordinary tranſaction was

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being deſirous of viſiting the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know whom you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king. "Yes," replied the ſoldier: "but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

partition of Poland in the year 1793; conſiſting of all that tract of lar with its inhabitants, which is contained within a line beginning at t village of Drury, on the left bank of the river Dwina, and thence e tending to Neroch and Dubrova, paſſing Kuniſh, near the frontier Gallicia, proceeding thence to the river Dnieſter, and laſtly runni along that river till it enters the old border of Ruſſia and Poland Jegertic.

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire pr perly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Swed in the preſent century; and alſo of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt exte ſive ſenſe; for we muſt alſo include all the acquiſitions in Tartar now known by the name of Siberia; the whole comprehending t northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sw den on the Weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Ocean; and on t north, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-ſeventh degree of latitud where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, th Euxine and Caſpian Seas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and other un known regions in Aſia.

The country now compriſed under the name of Ruſſia, or the Ruſſia is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater tha the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Dariu ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning t the table, p. 27.

| | Ruſſian Empire in Europe. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | Chief Cities. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Greek Church. | Ruſ. or Muſ. | 784,650 | 1160 | 1050 | Moſcow. | |
| | Belgorod, .... | 72,900 | 375 | 285 | Waronetz. | |
| | Don Coſſacs,.. | 57,000 | 400 | 280 | Panchina. | |
| | Uk. Coſſacs,.. | 45,000 | 330 | 205 | Kiow. | |
| | Lapland, .... | 72,000 | 405 | 270 | Kola. | |
| Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700, | Ruſ. Finland, | 41,310 | 320 | 180 | Wyburg. | |
| | Livonia, .... | 21,525 | 218 | 145 | Riga. | |
| | Ingria, ..... | 9,100 | 175 | 90 | PETERSBURG. | N. Lat. 60. E. L. 30-22. |
| Seized from the Turks in 1783. | Crim. Tar..... | 8,200 | 160 | 15 | Kaffa. | |
| | Ruſſian Empire in Aſia. | | | | | |
| Chriſtians and Idolaters. | Muſcovy, Tartary, & Siberia, | 2,000,000 | 3150 | 1500 | Tobolſki. | |
| | Kalm. Tart... | 850,000 | 2100 | 750 | Aſtracan. | |
| By the partition Treaties between the Emper. Pruſſia, & Ruſſia. | Lithuania and part of Poland, .... | 64,000 | 300 | 250 | Grodno. | |
| | Total | 4,025,685 | | | | |

Ruſſia takes its name from the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, a Sclavonic tribe. The word Muſcovy is derived from the river Moſca, on which the ancient capital Moſcow ſtands. The country, according to its ſituation and climate, is divided into the northern, middle, and ſouthern regions; which are again divided into governments, named after thoſe towns in which courts of judicature are eſtabliſhed. The northern diviſion contains the governments of St. Peterſburg, Archangel, Olonetz, Vybourg, Revel, Riga, Pſcov, Tver Novgorod, Vologda, Yaroſtavi Koſtroma, Viatka, Perme, Tobolſk. The middle diviſion contains the governments of Moſcov, or Moſcow, generally called Moſqua by the Ruſſians, Smolenſk, Polotſk, Mooghilev, Tchermigow, Novgorod, and Sieverſkoy, Kharkov, Kourſk, Orel, Kalouz, Toola, Riazane, Vladimer, Nezney-Novgorod, Kazane, Sinberſk, Penza, Tambov, Voronez, Saralov, Onſa, Kolkvane, Irkoutſk. The ſouthern diviſion contains the governments of Kiev, Katherinoſlav, Caucaſus, the province of Taurida, and the habitations of the Don Kozacks *.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. Hence there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity both of ſoil and climate.

The ſeverity of the climate, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburg, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing-point; though commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great. It is ſuch, that, when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. The beard is therefore found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face, which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual method to thaw it. It is alſo remarked that the part which has once been frozen is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong

* In this table, which is copied from the authentic work of captain Pleſchief, the ſpelling of the Ruſſian names is adapted to the Engliſh pronunciation, by his accurate tranſlator Mr. Smirnove, chaplain to the Ruſſian legation at the court of Great Britain.

ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this ſubſtan there was about a tea-cupful in the middle unfrozen, which was ſtrong and inflammable as brandy and ſpirits of wine. But, notwi ſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſ various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer mu leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons in tol able circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and wi in, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeve flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fu Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might imagined; and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary peop to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, an ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; the then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in th chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat twenty-four hours and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpe cially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the hut of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible; in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs-frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable that the wind *is* ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is the preſerving of proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburg, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburg are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia is by immerging them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction: but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and

melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture, and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors down to the preſent time, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The eaſy communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerves to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Ruſſia is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains; and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending on the ſea of Oral. And here it may be obſerved, that, from Peterſburg to Pekin, we ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburg to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburg, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea. It is reckoned one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe; producing many kinds of fiſh, and fertiliſing all the lands on each ſide with various trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation; but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, the number of its iſles increaſes, and it divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again; ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia, and, in its courſe towards the eaſt, approaches ſo near the Wolga, that the czar Peter I. had undertaken to form a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boryſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of

the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine or Black Sea, at K
burn, near Oczakow: it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtan
To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties it
at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiuga, and,
viding itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the Wh
Sea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and nor
eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants th
contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] Theſe do not differ greatly fro
thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavi
provinces, to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for
piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creatu
it can maſter; and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſ
Hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribe
afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the bla
foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dr
medary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden know
in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of lar
horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary pu
poſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia that have not been already de
ſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, except that the Ruſſians ar
better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, an
beluga; the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſtu
geon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 t
16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of th
roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga the Ruſſians make the famou
caviare, ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is ofte
ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they oft
find what is called the beluga-ſtone, which is concealed in that maſs o
glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior parts of the dorſal ſpine, ſup
plying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from th
fiſh it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is tha
of a hen's egg; in ſhape it is ſometimes oval, and ſometimes flatted, an
commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas
belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though
with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcra
it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes
children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The new regiſter in 176
contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer,
reſident ſome time in Ruſſia, gives the following eſtimate:

| | |
|---|---|
| Lower claſs of people paying capitation tax, | 18,000,000 |
| Conquered provinces, | 1,200,000 |
| Noble families, | 60,000 |
| Clergy, | 100,000 |
| Military, | 300,000 |
| Civil, | 80,000 |
| Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c. | 350,000 |
| | 20,100,000 |

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more, by the acquiſitions
the Crimea, and a part of Cuban Tartary; and at leaſt 1,500,000 in the
provinces diſmembered from Poland.

As his imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that his dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions are but a thin population for the immenſe tract of country he poſſeſſes. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation: it is probable alſo, that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; endure extreme hardſhips with great patience: and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs. No leſs than 4000 brandy-ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication: and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity appeared in the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence was aſtoniſhing. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe and all other luxuries were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden, deſtined to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Ruſſians, before this time, had ſcarcely a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the late empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. It is, however, to be obſerved, that, notwithſtanding the ſeverities of Peter and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks: nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign countries. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at

every court in Europe. Her late imperial majeſty intereſted herſelf in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents have agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is critically examined by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defect they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon her head, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongſt the lower ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage-contract.

FUNERALS.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for the ſoul, to purify the corpſe with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by their biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. This is put into the coffin, between the fingers of the corpſe; after which the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication, which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, forty days. During that time a prieſt every day recites prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands, at a time. The ſingle and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner with a hard thong cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient to pronounce the moment it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of a criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four ſtrokes, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes moderately inflicted. The boring

and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but there is much leſs humanity in this than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe that no fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries where capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei-Volotchok, and other places: but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are, upon an average, from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter being permitted to build huts near the mines, for themſelves and families. The prohibition of the torture does honour to the late empreſs Catharine II.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expenſe very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, the Ruſſians travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way towards February becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of a coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day wrapt up in good furs. In this manner they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburg and Moſcow, in three days and nights. Her late imperial majeſty, in her journeys, was drawn in a houſe which contained a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniences, for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf was fixed on a ſledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.] As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners: and the great reformation introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but now they make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tſchermiſes and Morduars, a peaceable, induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Calmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtracan, and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and, in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, they ſerve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Coſſacs*, who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe,

were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine, as a m againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a p them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don or Tanaïs, and eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circ on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted of th nine towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to A They cultivated the country, but were ſo wedded to their original cuſt that they were little better than nominal ſubjects to the czars, till time of Peter the Great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inc tions were warlike, and they occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The character of the Tartars of Kaſan may ſerve for that of al Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them tall; but they are generally ſtraight and well made, have ſmall f with freſh complexions, and a ſprightly and agreeable air. They haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capac They are ſober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond neatneſs. The Tartarian women are of a wholeſome complexion ra than handſome, and of a good conſtitution: from their earlieſt infa they are accuſtomed to labour, retirement, modeſty, and ſubmiſſ The Tartars of Kaſan take great care of the education of their childr They habituate their youth to labour, to ſobriety, and to a ſtrict ſervance of the manners of their anceſtors. They are taught to read write, and are inſtructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of t religion. Even the ſmalleſt village has its chapel, ſchool, prieſt, ſchool-maſter; though ſome of theſe prieſts and ſchool-maſters are much ſkilled in the Arabic language. The beſt Tartarian academie the Ruſſian empire are thoſe of Kaſan, Tobolſk, and Aſtracan, wh are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-prieſts. It is not common to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcri in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, beſides what thoſe li libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates, with the a quities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology en themſelves into the ſchools of Bougharia, which are more complete t the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, ca on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades, and have ſome manufactor Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very r ly ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not general very enterpriſing; but as they extend their connexions by pa ners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs, wh their parſimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kaſan th make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morocco-leath The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farm Moſt of them alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makers, tailors, dyers, ſmiths, a carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and v lagers of Aſtracan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of K ſan. In the city of Aſtracan they have a large magazine for goods, bu of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an importa commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, Boughariaus: a

their manufactories of Morocco-leather, cotton, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* are of Aſiatic origin, and have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, but are more civiliſed, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and have made ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercife moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a-day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks*, who are a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viatka, in the government of Kaſan. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, who are likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. Theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes: they chooſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no further, as is the caſe of other Finniſh nations.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. Their principal occupation is the chaſe, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Viſchnei-Novgorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe rifle-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the Tſchouwaſches "the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every thing himſelf; and "it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply."

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characteriſes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, and are affable and high-ſpirited, but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitutes their principal occupation. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtinguiſhed only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades,

and the quantity of huts which furround their quarters, inhabited by th wives, children, and ſlaves.

The *Tungufians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Sibe They are of a middle ſtature, well made, and of a good mien. Th ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is alm incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are conſiderab more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree a ſtone within the circuit of their uſual perambulation; and they c even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take t ſame route by ſuch deſcriptions. They alſo diſcover the tracks of t game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They learn foreign la guages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the moſt pa raw-boned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat, that the ſkull of a Calmu may be eaſily known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſ and a ſhort chin, the complexion a reddiſh and yellowiſh brown. The cloathing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chineſe. Some of the women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. Their principal foo is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle tha have died of diſtemper or age, and though the fleſh be putrid; ſo that i every horde the fleſh-market has the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſerts. They are grea eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Bot ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they remain in the northern and in the winter in the ſouthern deſerts. They ſleep upon felt or car peting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chaſe furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only do meſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country near twenty rubles, or 4l. 10s. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance, and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expenſe. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia; and here ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to

be diſcuſſed here; but the great article of faith by which that church has been ſo long ſeparated from the Latin or Catholic church, is the doctrine that the Holy Spirit does not proceed from the Father and the Son, but from the Father only. They deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhowed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church, and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend, for ſubſiſtence, upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off their beards: that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the emperor Peter III. and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents: nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty: and no female a nun till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

Language.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek: and they who are acquainted with the ancient language in its purity, may eaſily acquire the knowledge of it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

Learning and learned men.] The Ruſſians have hitherto made but an inconſiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement lately given by their ſovereigns, in the inſtitution of academies and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs that they are no way deficient in intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novgorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical: and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburg and Moſcow, is an evidence that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſci-

The Ruſſian navy in the harbours of Cronſtadt, Revel, and Archangel, in the year 1792, conſiſted of 50 ſhips of the line, of which eight were of 110 guns, and the reſt of 74 and 66; 27 frigates of 28, 32, and guns; 50 galleys, 300 gun-boats, 16 fire-ſhips, and other ſmaller veſſels beſides a fleet in the Black Sea, conſiſting of 17 ſhips of the line, and ſtill greater number of frigates, corvettes, &c. Twenty thouſand ſailors are kept in conſtant pay and ſervice, either on board the ſhips or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Peterſburg, defended on one ſide by a fort of four baſtions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large baſon will contain near 600 ſail of ſhips.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTIONS OF RANK. } The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic in the fulleſt extent of thoſe terms, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects, who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſeized upon and ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. Perſons of any rank may be baniſhed into Siberia, for the ſlighteſt political intrigue; and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which was a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters choſen by the ſovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was ſuppreſſed by Peter III.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not at all adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the late empreſs made ſome attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the judicious regulations of Catharine II. fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſs took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes, or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till theſe were reduced by the czar: but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the late empreſſes introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her late imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which, many years ago, was little leſs than

28,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually; thus compoſed:

| | Rubles. |
|---|---|
| Capitation tax | 8,500,000 |
| Other taxes and duties | 7,000,000 |
| The crown-lands, with other domains taken from the clergy | 6,000,000 |
| Produce of the mines | 1,500,000 |
| Monopoly of diſtilled liquors | 4,000,000 |
| Monopoly of ſalt | 1,800,000 |
| | 28,800,000 |

According to Mr. Pleſcheef's computation, publiſhed in Engliſh by the reverend Mr. Smirnove, the revenues of Ruſſia exceed 40,000,000 of rubles; and the expences, even in time of war, are ſaid not to amount to 30,000,000. The two French travellers, who were in Ruſſia in 1792, eſtimate the whole revenue of the empire to have been little leſs than 60,000,000 of rubles, or nearly 12,000,000l. ſterling.

When this ſum is conſidered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the two late empreſſes, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. In 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total is ſaid to have amounted only to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. ſterling). This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 339,500 men, employed in the land and ſea-ſervice. The other expences, beſide the payment of the army and navy of the late empreſs, the number and diſcipline of which were at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, were very conſiderable. Her court was elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gave to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England, in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon cattle, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed with little or no expence, and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier formerly amounts to thirty ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found with proviſions when on ſhore.

Orders.] The order of St. *Andrew* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in 1693, to animate his nobles and officers in his wars againſt the Turks,

He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki* was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catharine I. in the year 1725. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs, for her aſſiſtance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of St. *George* was inſtituted by the late empreſs Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The order of St. *Wolodemir* was inſtituted October 3d, 1782, by the late empreſs, in favour of thoſe who ſerve in a civil capacity. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced into Ruſſia by Peter III.

History.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent were formerly rich and populous. The reader who caſts his eyes on the general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In later times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered on Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the ninth century; but they have a tradition, that Kiovia and Novgorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century, when the princeſs of this country, called Olba, is ſaid to have been baptiſed at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of the alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptiſe the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church: and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. About this time John or Iwan Baſilides conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is ſaid to have taken 300 cart-loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign of forty years gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of the John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations

afterwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar (a word which ſignifies emperor, and is probably derived from the Roman *Cæſar*), was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled by a ſet of weak, cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers: and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him; and he was murdered. Three other falſe Demetriuses ſtarted up, one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended from the ancient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent embaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſſian tyrants, and there was detained priſoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes, and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon Michael Fœdorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claim of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wiſdom, and the mildneſs of his character, reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. It here may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of the nation. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared by ſending her magnificent jewels and a wedding-robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in

his wars with the Swedes. When the grand-ſignior, Mahomet I haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his a ſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and th "his ſcimitar was as good as the grand-ſignior's ſabre." He promot agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſt uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army eſtabliſhing diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrange moſt of whom were Scotch. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſa named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtr can; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on th high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his d minions; and, inſtead of putting to death or enſlaving his Lithuania Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of th Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius i 1667. He reigned ſeven years; and having on his death-bed called hi boyars around him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Iwan an Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who wa his half-brother, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt ſentiments; they ar "dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my peo "ple. The bodily infirmities of Iwan neceſſarily muſt affect his men "tal faculties; he is incapable of ruling an empire like that of Ruſſia; "he cannot take it amiſs if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, and "let your approbation fall on Peter, who, to a robuſt conſtitution, joins "great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." But this wile deſtination extremely offended the princeſs Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birth-right, and exerciſed the government herſelf with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given of her barbarous adminiſtration are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter, their aſſociate co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter now was about 17 years of age, and aſſerted his right to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow; and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared; but his great eſtate was confiſcated, and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment: "Thou art commanded by the "moſt clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and "there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his "extreme goodneſs, allows thee three-pence per day for thy ſubſiſt "ence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689. than the mild and eaſy Iwan; and upon his death, which happened

in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 3000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own embaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only overawed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia: and at laſt, he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendſhip he ſhowed to Auguſtus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences; and, upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who in Ruſſia is called the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alleged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, it is difficult to determine on the juſtice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; and the very reading of the ſentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is ſaid, that, as ſoon as ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil and mili-"tary law, condemns to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts "againſt their father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the

moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with great difficulty th
regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father
come to ſee him; when he aſked his pardon, and ſoon after died. Ac
ing to other accounts, he was ſecretly executed in priſon, and ma
Weyde was the perſon who beheaded him. After this event, in 1
Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame ma
cent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recog
as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ru
throne upon the deceaſe of her huſband. She died, after a glo
reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to
czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during
ſhort reign of this prince; but none were more remarkable than th
grace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the
late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter II. die
the ſmall-pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſia
nate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide
order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of P
was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to the el
daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to
crown; but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne
Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's el
brother, though her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburg,
alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accep
the throne under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her d
nity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſt
and puniſhed the aſpiring Dologorucki family, who had impoſed u
her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves mi
govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courlan
and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his
count. Upon her death in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece the pr
ceſs of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric of Brunſwick-Wolfenb
tle, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion; but being no m
than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the emp
during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princ
of Mecklenburg and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſia
Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburg to ar
Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent into exile
Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburg and her h
band, was, on many accounts, but particularly that of her German co
nexions, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of E
rope: and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with t
Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Gr
formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and p
claimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburg, her h
band, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than th
of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capi
puniſhments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings
moderation till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time h
puniſhed counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief manag
ment of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She ma
peace with Sweden, and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſio
to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equi

his foundation. Having gloriouſly finiſhed a war with Sweden, ſhe reſtored the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and, ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, called him to her court, where he renounced the ſucceſſion of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly was his right, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, the late empreſs Catharine II. by whom he had a ſon, who is the preſent emperor of Ruſſia.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expenſe of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the fortune of the war, which was in diſfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her ſucceſs was ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand-duke of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein, a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the rule of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects even of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but it is ſaid that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alleged that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both the empreſs and her ſon, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the ſame authority which had placed the crown upon his head: even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife and ſon in a convent, to place his miſtreſs upon the throne, and to change the order of ſucceſſion. The execution of his deſigns was, however, prevented by an almoſt general conſpiracy formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. His wife, the late Catharine II. was proclaimed empreſs.

The death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburg, was an act of ſtate policy perfectly according with the means by which Catharine aſcended the throne. This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world, was deſigned, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwanowna; but, on the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelburg, under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that, if any perſon or any armed force was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon, when the empreſs Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan; ſhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entruſted him to the

care of two officers who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms, from the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death, after an impriſonment of 23 years. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithſtanding this, it has been repreſented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he ſuffered for executing the inſtructions he received.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland; which was generally the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland was a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into that country; and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed, in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman-catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia with regard to Poland gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand-ſignior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the Seven Towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 ſpahis, having forced the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the grand vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the banks of the Nieſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accordingly croſſed the Neiſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the neceſſary diſpoſitions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they met with ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the paliſadoes of the fortreſs.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought between a conſiderable Turkiſh army, and the Ruſſians under prince Galitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim; but the garriſon, being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the

grand vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued; and prince Galitzin was at length obliged to retreat, and repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which, it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; ſo that, in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romanzow committed great devaſtations upon the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt totally deſtroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Nieſter, and effectually defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe ſome diſadvantages, the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy, but were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs, and in the utmoſt confuſion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, and deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid that the loſs of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. According, on the 17th of September, eight thouſand Janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell on the waters of the Neiſter carried away and totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued, in which the ſlaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and

abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuouſly towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks loſt 28,000 of the beſt and braveſt of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburg, covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians continued to carry on the war with ſucceſs; they overran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmdt took poſſeſſion of the capital, Jaſſy, without oppoſition. As the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army near the river Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand-vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies: a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian-built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide; and, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length peace was concluded, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburg. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor, Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape, through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is ſaid to have been a ſtriking reſemblance in his perſon to that of the late emperor; which induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great

ravages in the country. But being at laſt totally defeated, and taken priſoner, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indiſpenſably neceſſary to the immediate preſervation of the Turkiſh empire; but within ſo ſmall a ſpace of time as five years a new war was juſt upon the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21ſt of March, 1779. But the great ſource of diſcord was ſtill left open. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded ſuch an opening to Ruſſia into the very heart of the Turkiſh empire, and ſuch opportunities of interference, that it was ſcarcely poſſible that any laſting tranquillity could ſubſiſt between the two empires. A claim, made and inſiſted on by Ruſſia, of eſtabliſhing conſuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Beſſarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long diſputes, the Turkiſh miniſters, more from a ſenſe of the diſability of the ſtate for war, than from pacific diſpoſitions, found it neceſſary, towards the cloſe of the year 1781, to give up the point in debate with reſpect to the conſuls. This conceſſion, however mortifying, produced but a ſhort-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of ſupporting all the claims of Ruſſia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmoſt vigour, for the moſt determined hoſtility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the moſt formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eaſtern borders of Europe. However, in the midſt of all theſe appearances of war, negotiations for a peace continued to be carried on at Conſtantinople; which peace was at laſt ſigned, January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty Ruſſia retains the full ſovereignty of her new acquiſitions, viz. the Crimea, the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban.—As the recovery and reſtoration of every thing Greek is the predominant paſſion of the court of Peterſburgh, ſo the Crimea and its dependencies are in future to be known by the name of Taurica; particular places are likewiſe reſtored to their ancient appellations; and the celebrated port and city of Caffa has now reſumed its long-forgotten name of Theodoſia. Since this acceſſion of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Ruſſian names, are riſing faſt in the deſerts, and are peopled moſtly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary ſpectacle of the journey of the empreſs of Ruſſia to Cherſon, where it ſeems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all poſſible magnificence, and under the ſplendid titles of empreſs of the Eaſt, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the ſeries of Roman emperors, who formerly ſwayed the ſceptre over that diviſion of the globe. But this coronation, for reaſons we are unable to aſſign, was laid aſide. The ſplendor of the route of the czarina ſurpaſſes whatever the imagination would ſpontaneouſly ſuggeſt. She was eſcorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whoſe buſineſs it was to render the road as even and pleaſant as it could poſſibly be made. At the end of each day's journey ſhe found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Peterſburg could have afforded. In the liſt of her followers were the embaſſadors of London, Verſailles, and Vienna; and her own embaſſador, as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Conſtantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cher-

or whether it originates in ſecret views of ſelf-intereſt and aggrandiſement, time alone muſt diſcover.

Catharine II. the empreſs of all the Ruſſias, was born May 2, 1729, and aſcended the throne July 9, 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince while he was duke of Holſtein Gottorp, Sept. 1, 1745; and died Nov. 9, 1796.

Paul I. the preſent emperor of Ruſſia, was born Oct. 1, 1754. He has been twice married; and by his preſent conſort, who was princeſs of Wirtemberg, has iſſue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777, married to the princeſs Louiſa, of Baden, May 21, 1793.
2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779, married to the princeſs of Saxe Cobourg, February 14, 1796.
3. Alexander Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princeſs, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princeſs, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princeſs, born in 1792.

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## SCOTLAND AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ACCORDING to the general plan of this work, we ſhall treat of the iſlands belonging to Scotland, before we proceed to the deſcription of that ancient kingdom; and to avoid prolixity, comprehend under one head thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides*, or Weſtern Iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of theſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands they can ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent; the reſt of the year, however, theſe iſlands are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England, the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty-ſix in number (though many of them are uninhabited),

* Anciently called the *Hebudes*. The origin of the modern name Hebrides is not known, except it be a corruption of *Hebudes*.

is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen; and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at midſummer, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in ſome places almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are Lewis, or Harris (for they both form but one iſland), which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and in ſome places 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland, as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together about 370 ſquare miles; but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway, is ſtill famous for its reliques of ſanctimonious antiquity, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, apparently, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. The inhabitants of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, by whom they were given as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became ſubject to, the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret: and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; except that their manners are more ſimple, and their minds leſs cultivated. Men of fortune there have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years, and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houſes in a modern taſte, and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty), particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is

afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and ſi manufactures begin to make a progreſs in theſe iſlands. They ca their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutt which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſt with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to ren theſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother country, well as to their inhabitants.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Little can be ſaid on this head th is peculiar to theſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mentio has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcover here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewher The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are in credibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets o London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe twenty years, ſeemed, how ever, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxu ries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 pe cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburgers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] Theſe iſlands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, of what has been already obſerved, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for at preſent. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and 9 thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, large enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of the Druidical temples remaining in theſe iſlands, ſome of which have required prodigious labour, and are ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury; others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright; ſome of them have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones, found in many burial places here, give room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gate

of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtone, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head were we even to mention every remarkable monument found in them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated Iſle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious erections upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaëlic inſcriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola is 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable are the inſcriptions of ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies, that are diſcernible upon this iſland, and which give countenance to the well-known obſervation, that, when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants who were digging for marle; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural.

But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved even by the natives of theſe iſlands;—a diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of Mr. Banks, now ſir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays: "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum, which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe, above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt in the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or playthings; imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect? Regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion: and here it has been for ages undeſcribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet

with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which paſt all deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſis, and the ſtrata below them is alſo viſible." Mr. Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks deſcribes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giants' Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers*. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great degree of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the ſartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt," ſays he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giants' Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject: "We had in view a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giants' Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and five angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roods entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with: The laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian; the Giants' Cauſeway appears firſt; Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther; and finally, thoſe columns of Sky; the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt link of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by Mr. Banks:

| | |
|---|---|
| Length of the cave from the arch without | 371 Feet. |
| From the pitch of the arch | 250 |
| Breadth of ditto at the mouth | 53 |
| At the further end | 20 |
| Height of the arch at the mouth | 117 |
| At the end | 70 |
| Height of an outſide pillar | 39 |
| Of one at the north-weſt corner | 54 |
| Depth of water at the mouth | 18 |
| At the bottom | 9 |

# SCOTLAND.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 300<br>Breadth 190 | between | 54 and 59 North Latitude.<br>1 and 6 Weſt Longitude. |

NAME.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Ecoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh Seas, or, more properly, the Atlantic Ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the counties ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen to the northern: and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

| Shires. | Sheriffdoms and other Subdiviſions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Edinburgh (297*) | Mid Lothian | Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith. |
| 2 Haddington (137) | Eaſt Lothian | Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick. |
| 3 Merſe, anciently Berwick† (145) | The Merches, and Lauderdale | Dunſe and Lauder. |
| 4 Roxburgh (149) | Tiviotdale, Lidiſdale, Eſkdale, & Eweſdale | Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs. |

* The numbers ſhow the proportion of militia, as propoſed to be raiſed in each ſhire by the late act of parliament.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a country in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county *itſelf*, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, d light, at midſummer, laſts eighteen hours and five minutes; and the and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The air of Scotland more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. T ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes, b ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affo thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the a but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthf and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many oth countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, howev which are generally covered with ſnow, the air is keen and pierc for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fer as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture th for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and vall of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſant waſhed down from the mountains, and depoſited in theſe valleys, affo them a vegetative nouriſhment, which is capable of carrying t ſtrongeſt plants to perfection; though experience has proved, th many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to m turity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variet of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by charming intermixture of natural objects. The vaſt inequalities of th ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particu larly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations fo country houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry hav ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves. It is their ſituation, more than an expenſive magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argy and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention o every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depend on the qualities of the ſoil through which it paſſes. Water paſſin through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious; but, filtrating through ſan or gravel, is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is i general the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of mor ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Gram pian-hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowa in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chai of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian, and join thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſter coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continue chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills on th borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which from their conical figure, are ſometimes called by the Celtic name, *Laws* Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms, but too nu merous to be particulariſed here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is th Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German Sea, to which it gives the name of Frith o Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch-Tay in Broadalbin, and, running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and fal into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, runnin from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do th rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue them

f[illegible]t Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, [illegible]ny beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at [illegible], where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on [illegible]ern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has [illegible]e in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, [illegible], after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenoch, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the Iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſize, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſh, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers have the name of *Eſk*, which is the old Celtic word for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great Britain was undertaken, at a very conſiderable expence, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together, by which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch-Tay, Loch-Lomond, Loch-Neſs, Loch-Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scotch ſometimes give the name of a Loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch-Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant *elorina*, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk, and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Loch-Neſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the Lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays or arms of the ſea, as the Bay of Glenluce and Wigtown Bay; ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and foundries; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the works ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland,

and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in th Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four o five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, with out being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boa of its gold mines, yet it is certain that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt tha Scotland formerly afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for it coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans fo working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes filled with coins of Scotch gold were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been reſumed. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts, waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins, ſtruck by James V. called bonnet pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places of Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood: and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel: however, the taſte for plantations of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint heads of arrows uſed by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the profits, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] It is certain that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid that ſome tracts of the Low-countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are ſo far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſlands; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are

daily introducing new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which, being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which, except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, of looſe ſtones huddled up without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are ſaid to fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nouriſhment or pleaſure.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and bid fair to emulate the Dutch themſelves in curing as well as catching their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsful as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets, than the Engliſh and Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domeſtic animals that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and roe-buck are found in the Highlands; but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe the capperkaily, and the ptarmigan, which is

of the pheaſant kind; but theſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highland and, when diſcovered, are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle th cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that a fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of t ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into t country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on t ſouthern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the va increaſe of manufactures, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſe the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the bree of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that wa taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland were unfavour able to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſ that, about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were o much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce th Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for pro viding them with proper food and management; but with what ſucceſ time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls; this calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as we know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers furniſhed by Scotland, in the war which began in 1755, to amount to 80,000 men. We are, however, to obſerve, that about 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and credible hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned, and a kind of characteriſtical feature, that of high check-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scotch have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive that the ridiculous family-pride which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. The family differences, eſpecially of the Highlanders, familiariſed them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a ſubject of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only; for they were authoriſed and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, excepting ſome of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan or family, even in the moſt civiliſed parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as its ſovereign. Theſe prejudices were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates; and they generally executed their haſty ſentences in four-and-twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility.

The late Archibald duke of Argyle was the firſt chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh from them thoſe barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a popiſh conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid economy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions; and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterpriſe; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity, and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies; witneſs that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people: and though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed, were it not well atteſted.

They affect a fondneſs for the memory and language of their fore-

fathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is ſeldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or diſguſtful though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch diſhes, ſuch as the haggeſs, the ſheep's head finged, the fiſh in ſauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. Theſe diſhes, in their original dreſſing, were ſavoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates.

The inhabitants of moſt parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage, with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtript of their original ſimplicity, which, however irregular, is the moſt eſſential characteriſtic, is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in their church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland: but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing-bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the body is carried in a coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chair-poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or addreſs to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any funeral ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the *Golf*, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played with a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket-ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole wins the game. The diverſion of *Curling* is likewiſe, I believe, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding winter and ſummer diverſions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen conſidering it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] Theſe two articles are placed under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves on the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very nearly the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues; ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is probably the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt; and this they term the *phelibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the phelibeg hung generally their knives and a dagger which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine wormanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs) ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular

faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of differ forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towa the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſembla between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the Scots, and thoſe the Tuſcans (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many effo had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſa them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The d arming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebellion in 17 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than th which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloc rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a tot change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of t field is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Eve the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and, for its ligh neſs and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentle men wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differ little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retai the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of th women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms.

The Earſe, or Celtic, is ſtill ſpoken in the Highlands; but the lan guage of the Low-countries, which is of the ſame origin with the Engliſh, is continually extending. The Engliſh and Scotch are written in the ſame manner; and the pronunciation of the latter is ſcarcely more different from that of London than are thoſe of the northern and weſtern Engliſh counties.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent, earl Morton; and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the Apoſtle, who fled to this northern country to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptiſed. It was farther confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that

darkneſs, which for ages overſpread Europe; though its dependence upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long maintained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, till the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner, in the work of reformation, to John Huſs and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed greatly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for that great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved to the reign of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences, began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but give riſe to the reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that, upon the abolition of the Roman-catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out thoſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which through the fury of the mob deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopoliſed all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great ſtruggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of great importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that, though no ſtipend there exceeds 250l. a year, few fall ſhort of 100l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the great and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who were extremely jealous of their being revived. Even that relic of popery, the oblig-

ing fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repen ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begin wear out, it having been found that the Scotch women, on acco of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. In fh the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at l very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extra gancy of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Re lution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover, a acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. Th dreſs without clerical robes; but ſome of them appear in the *pulpit* gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of forms in worſhip. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of ep copacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pi purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty the uſe of proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North *Britai* and the weſtern iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned o funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, of which thirty-o are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than o miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſem bly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. I conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of whom are laymen, under the title o ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of leſs than twelve miniſters, ſends two *miniſters* and one ruling elder; if it contains between twelve and eighteen mi niſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder; if it contains betwee eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders; but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſend five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. Theſe commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſ ſembly. The ruling elders are often perſons of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets annually in May; but he has no voice in their deliberations. This aſſembly chooſes a clergyman for its moderator, or ſpeaker. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods, are preſbyteries, of which there are ſixty-nine in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder choſen half yearly out of every ſeſſion, compoſe a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion, but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a

[illegible]ncy; otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſters, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as church-wardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay-perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. The elders are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

The eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland formerly partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. In the Low-lands there are a great number of ſeceding congregations. They maintain their own preachers, though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they oppoſe the civil power; or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable: and perhaps many of theſe *ſeceſſions* are juſtifiable on account of the great abuſes of patronage, by which many pariſhes have unworthy or incapable miniſters impoſed upon them, as is the caſe in many places in England.

A different ſet of diſſenters, in Scotland, conſiſt of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many baptiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe King William's title. The partiſans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion: and king William's government was rendered ſo unpopular in Scotland, that, in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that, at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly; the decline of the nonjurors having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland. The Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the

iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhc St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhoprics, Edinburgh, Du Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roth, Caithneſs, Orkney, C way, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer t literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern part iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Irel and many others ſince, whoſe names alone would make a long ar The writings of Adamnarus, and other authors who lived before ar the time of the Norman invaſion, which are ſtill extant, are ſpecir of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt un tionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotl with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmer planning, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſe naries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoub truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch p philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having fi riſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as p Engliſh as that bard; and his verſification is perhaps more harmonio The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity h rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſt of Buchanan's hiſtory is equal in claſſical purity to that of any mode productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princ are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they we written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwe This has been conſidered as a proof that claſſical learning was more cu tivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery which in point of ing nuity and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern time is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſtone. And ſince his tim the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with grea ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico mathematical works, to the clearneſs of hi reaſoning, has ſometimes added the colouring of a poet. Of all writer on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and ele gant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, wa endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind which rendered him pe culiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the leve of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the almoſt de-ſerted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simpſon, ſo well known for his illuſtrations of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic Sections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country.

This, however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathemati-cians and aſtronomers: the fine arts have been called ſiſters, to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, par-ticularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics, and phy-ſics, properly ſo called, were, in Scotland, accompanied by the other

branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, Brown, and Gregory, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind that has appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that Eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews*, founded in 1411,—Glaſgow†, 1454,—Aberdeen ‖, 1477,—and Edinburgh ‡, 1582.

It is with pleaſure we inform our readers, that a conſiderable progreſs has been made in the erection of a new univerſity at Edinburgh, to which our moſt gracious ſovereign has been a very liberal benefactor. The edifice promiſes to be a noble monument of national taſte and ſpirit.

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy, | Church Hiſtory, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Hebrew, | Mathematics, | Medicine. |
| Logic, | Civil Hiſtory, | |

† Glaſgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Moral Philoſophy | Divinity, |
| Humanity, | Natural Philoſophy, | Civil and Scotch Law, |
| Hebrew, | Mathematics, | Medicine, |
| Oriental Languages, | Practical Aſtronomy, | Anatomy. |
| Logic, | Hiſtory, | |

‖ Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College.

King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Philoſophy, | Civil Law, |
| Humanity, | Divinity, | Medicine. |
| Oriental Languages, | | |

Mariſchal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Greek, | Natural Philoſophy, | Divinity, |
| Oriental Languages, | Mathematics, | Medicine. |
| Moral Philoſophy and Logic, | | |

‡ Edinburgh has a Principal, and Profeſſors in

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Divinity, | Aſtronomy, | Rhetoric and Belles Lettres, |
| Church Hiſtory, | Mathematics, | Botany, |
| Greek, | Civil Hiſtory, | Materia Medica, |
| Humanity, | Natural Hiſtory, | Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine, |
| Oriental Languages, | Agriculture, | Practice of Medicine, |
| Logic, | Scotch Law, | Chemiſtry, |
| Moral Philoſophy, | Civil Law, | Anatomy, |
| Natural Philoſophy, | Law of Nature and Nations, | Midwifery. |

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Edinburgh, the cap Scotland, naturally the firſt place in this diviſion. The caſtle, before the uſe of art was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the king Edwin, whoſe territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the han the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conce the High-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and and the lanes running down its ſides north and ſouth. In former ti the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mar Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſugg the idea of building very lofty houſes, divided into ſtories, eac which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, whi chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt pearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gra aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is ter nated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lo rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new tow and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extent proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, a even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border up the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was ſo extreme inconvenient, that the Engliſh, who ſeldom went farther into the cou try, returned with the deepeſt impreſſion of Scotch naſtineſs, whi became proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerab train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammu nition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the mo ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. A that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia is contained in the inſtrume which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they a fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtand the abbey, or rather palace, of Holy-rood houſe. The inner quadrangle o this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnifi cent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under th direction of ſir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one o the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains magnificent apartment for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and fo other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which ar from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artiſts, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak, unimproved crags and mountains, with ſcarcely a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof and two rows of ſtone galleries, ſupported with curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and

rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years before, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balcanquhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are, however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by ſir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord-ordinary, preſides by rotation: in a room near it ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scottiſh hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining the library is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now

carrying on for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far b
ſuited to their importance and value.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is nov
vided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits.
is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches, ſo
ed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye.
churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, cor
little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent paven
of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Fre
man, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the Exchan
public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the
improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Paralle
the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and oth
have almoſt completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour
the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with the utmoſt
gularity, and the houſes are built with ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with
the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and con
modious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed, diſplaying at t
ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of t
proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, whic
agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet
water, bordered by a terras-walk, and the aſcent towards the new tow
covered with pleaſure-gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſig
fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who findin
greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen upon buildin
leaſes, this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowde
city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who had been ſo liberal in
ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the houſe
of lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equalled diſtin
guiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to
theſe mean erections. At the weſt or upper end of this vale, the caſtle,
a ſolid rock, not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful
magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object
of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which
joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide
the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for car-
riages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader
may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence,
with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the
view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and
diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward
gives full ſcope to the eye, delights the imagination, and fills the mind
with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable
proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn or tavern, with a
genteel coffee-room, towards the ſide that overlooks the Forth; and which
might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription; and, from the great reſort
of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open
wall which incloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric, but in
the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been
impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels,
who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouſe,
which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, as-

[illegible]ies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as fre[illegible] and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London [illegible] Bath excepted.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon, and here are 14, namely, surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, furriers, hammer-men, [illegible] or carpenters, masons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, [illegible], fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is colonel of the [illegible]-guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's [illegible] but in Edinburgh; they serve for the city watch, and patrol [illegible] streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the [illegible] of sentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear a uniform; they are immediately commanded by [illegible] officers under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh [illegible] sixteen companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The [illegible] of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in [illegible] of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amount[illegible] in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint [illegible] (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts [illegible] city. This is a most judicious impost, as it renders the poorest [illegible] insensible of the burden. Its product, however, has been sufficient [illegible] defray the expence of supplying the city with excellent water, brought [illegible] leaden pipes from the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, [illegible] arging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works of [illegible] expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the har[illegible] of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains no[illegible] remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the [illegible], which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under [illegible] of Guise, against the English, and afterwards repaired by Crom[illegible]. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, [illegible] are daily increasing: some of them yield to few in England; but [illegible] are too numerous to be particularised here. I cannot however avoid [illegible] the marquis of Abercorn's, a short way from the city, the [illegible] of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-house, so called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, esteemed one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney and duke of Oldenburg.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city in Scotland, and, considering its size, the first in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern-built churches are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a

maſterly and matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or K
gern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathe
upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rig
formers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town houſe is a lofty
ing, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univ
is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is
ſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals
it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, prop
the accommodation of ſtrangers of any rank. They have lately b
handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow
particulariſe that, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of thi
carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing
their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on
amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches, and eight or ten me
houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inh
ants has been eſtimated at 60,000.

Aberdeen bids fair to be the third town in Scotland for improve
and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its n
and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is
ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a
well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are t
churches and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable de
of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well-frequented univer
and about 20,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, the
almoſt joined to the New by means of a long village, has no dep
ence on the other; it is a moderately large market town, but has no ha
In each of theſe two places there is a well-endowed college, both toge
being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independen
each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trade
Norway and the Baltic; is finely ſituated, has an improving linen ma
factory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpo
Great Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. This town is ſuppoſed to h
increaſed one-third ſince the year 1745; and contains about 11,000 inh
tants. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 10,000
habitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of c
ſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to ſu
foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick,
Brechin, lie in the ſame county, of Angus: the firſt has a great and
riſhing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are
improving ſtate.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own v
and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This
maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experie
and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a ſorry figure
gularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumb
formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hou
beſieged by 6000 regular troops with proper artillery. Fort Wi
which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabita
that neighbourhood; as are Fort George and Fort Auguſtus, in the
and north-weſt: but none of them can be conſidered as defences aga
foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble e
that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been er
for private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous th

particularise them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expence. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland: but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long and ſore ſufferings they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs Scotland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome new diſcoveries, an account of them would afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood*. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king, Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome,

* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles; which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of theſe materials. A gentleman, who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public-ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſed ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone. The bones and teeth of animals, with a ſooty kind of earth, were found in the paſſages; from which ſome have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-houſe for the uſe of the neighbouring garriſon.

or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of t
ver Carron in Stirlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demo
by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond.
height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the
was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the
complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have
built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the
Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Ro
empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial co
mounds of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Du
pacis; which ſerve to evidence that there was a kind of ſolemn comp
miſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould
extend their empire farther to the northward.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other
mains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Sc
land; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does
appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found n
the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carri
it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent
the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northe
counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituatio
Some houſes or ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire; but whether th
are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of t
of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentionale. I am
opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and bui
about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon th
coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extr
ordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland: one of them
Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of the
are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without the ſtair-caſe; that
Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof
ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it conſiſts of ſix
regular courſes of hewn free-ſtone, laid circularly, and regularly taperi
towards the top. If theſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people m
have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coe
monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of
order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman ſtyle of architectu
It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſta
in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that of Brechin denote
to be of Chriſtian origin. It is not indeed impoſſible that theſe ſculptu
are of a later date. Beſides theſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildi
are found in Scotland, but not of the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots themſelves are
only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events
their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſcul
ture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and her
At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeli
are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They
erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that peop
and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many e
blematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day,
minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other hiſtorical monume
of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions; but it muſt

acknowledged that the obſcurity of their ſculptures has opened a field to boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs, or Forroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the other in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtrictly monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near 5. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a very ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well-cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-wrought carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion on the reverſe exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very ſtriking; and many parts of that fine building have ſtill the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The weſt door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice diſplays very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles, may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverugie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl-mareſchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of much grandeur and majeſty. Vaſt rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and a great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and in particular their curious ceilings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scottiſh antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it

Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Roma for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſc of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. T hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium, near D ſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pumices or ſcoriæ different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of Icelandic volcanoes. Among other natural curioſities of this *count* mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſt together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea ſhells; they are fou on the top of a mountain called Scorna-Lappich, in Roſsſhire, twe miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be rema able for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water ooz through a ſpongy porous rock at the top, quickly conſolidates after drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotla have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extr ordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they a ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, a are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been t ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In theſe reſpects Scotland ha for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without enteri into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union wi England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſio of Darien, and to carry on the Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founde upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed wit a noble ſpirit of enterpriſe. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after r ceiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the anna of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, ind pendent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the lon languor of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which th country ſuſtained, by the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that accoun and ſome invaſions of their rights afterwards, which they thought incon ſiſtent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow ſettlements family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might con tribute to the ſame effect.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, aft the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſc vered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſide able object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits r ceived by that country, for the relief of the people from their feud tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encou ragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufacture during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importanc Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan, an juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, goo ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive wa that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add to the honou of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail them ſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſteri acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on wit

the British ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe thirty years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scottiſh manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood has been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt Indies.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to its own coaſts, for the Scots have a great ſhare in the whale-fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvements of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being, by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port of Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciouſly calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength and its commerce. But though the political exiſtence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her ſeamen, this noble inſtitution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of thoſe who have embarked in it, and, unleſs vigorouſly ſupported, muſt fail of obtaining its object.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but, whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery; and it is to be wiſhed that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place their fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire.

Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very

promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and the ports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pr to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at preſent broad-cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorl cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, ſmelting the ore, of their country. Their coal trade to England is known; and of late they have turned even their ſtone to account their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great tra cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is not miniſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increa home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from L and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great em rium for the American commerce, before the commencement of unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country, come to be known, the bet adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign a domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures not mentioned, ſome of them yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley alone employs an incredi number of hands in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtrip lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar houſes, glaſ works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected eve where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; a ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection in any part of Europe. After all that has been ſaid, many years w be required before the trade and improvements in Scotland can brought to maturity. In any event they never can give umbrage the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be, th ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious di advantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt Scotland lie from her nobility and great land-holders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the Union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland have wiſely abandoned French claret and brandy (though too much is ſtill made uſe of in that country) for rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only a corruption of two French words *bas pièce*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation that we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but denominations of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame, as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others ſay, on account of his victory over Athelſtan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his poſterity ſhould ever bear in their enſigns the figure of that croſs on which the ſaint ſuffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*, "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing a deſpotic authority. But the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyranniſe over and oppreſs their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhow mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the in-

tervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of g vernment; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appoi commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted a limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it nam officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the r venues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he decla war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importan without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even entruſted with the ex cutive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of Jam IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon-in-law to, Henry VII. England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſe vant of his people; as appears by the act ſtill extant. In ſhort, t conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, ga the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his peo ple, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhowe a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in th parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in th they were aſſiſted by the clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and wh had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of th powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of mem bers, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out o the clergy, nobility, knights and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen jointl choſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners f burghs; and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, th chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matter brought into parliament; ſo that, in fact, though the king could give n negative, yet being, by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, al ways ſure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parli ment that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged tha this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth, nor was it ever brough into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawye are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt sigh of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic pur poſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences ar well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James a once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince an princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people o Scotland had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. If it be aſked, Why did they ſubmit to tha tyranny?—the anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upo England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtro by uniting them with England. They therefore choſe rather to ſubmi

as a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe; for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberative and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of the great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions: the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſe of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great were, the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy ſeal, and ſecretary; the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. Since the Union, none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight-marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon diviſion. The lord advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex facialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly an office of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority (which is not the caſe in Eng-

land), in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the law.

The privy council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sup the parliament and privy-council of Great Britain; and the civil criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognisable by two court judicature.

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by J V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambul committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the of council and session, which the present members of the college of ju still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ord members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who ma and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that a not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often ma of surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their cou and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of Union. This, however, may be easily accounted for, because those l and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of Engla The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme *crimi* judge was named the Justiciar, and the court of justiciary succeeded to h power.

The justice-court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lor justice-general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. Th lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; b the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five oth judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In th court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have alread hinted, without the necessity of their being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of th Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, au thority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as th court of exchequer in England has over the revenue there; and all matter and things competent to the court of exchequer in England relating there to, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges o the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonge to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes compe tent to its own jurisdiction: and the lord high admiral is declared to be th king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports harbours, and creeks of the same: and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to its jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord-high-admiral and judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judi catory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in some cases is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wilby, and the Hanse-Towns, and other

maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal: but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who call themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a by-government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron-courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but by a late act of parliament they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes, and steward deputes, it is enacted that there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their office *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriff's courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours in the day-time. These courts, however petty, were in former days invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the g legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of Engla They took cogniſance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they w repuired to have clerks to regiſter depoſitions and matters of fact, well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at preſent much diſu in Scotland.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is pl that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The lat allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam M jeſtatem*, their oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who wa judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay th Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with t peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in t laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial *parli* ment, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſent tive from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whol Their powers are pretty extenſive; and before the Union they made law relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners an merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, *ſuch a* plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon and herrings, and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to thei regulation; they fix the ſtaple port, which was formerly at Dort, and i now at Campvere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the *crown* but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that in truth the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitu- tion, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of com- merce.

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law-reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of *ſederunt* anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity be- tween the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe *has been* mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scottiſh conſtitution, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of *the ſame* nature as the Saxon Folcmote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman au- thors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were probably the firſt inhabit- ants; the Picts undoubtedly were the Britons who were forced north-

peopled by the Belgic Gauls, about fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and who, ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots moſt probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people in proceſs of time were ſubdued by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march toward Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people: and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the twenty-firſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and, after him, the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Friths of Clyde and Forth already mentioned, and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway-Frith, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before-mentioned, were the deſcendants of the ancient Britons forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and, being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe; but it broke out with more luſtre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 1448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they *tell them*, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up

by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians: for ſo all tions were called who were not Romans, or under the Roman tection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, generally deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mod ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it at laſt ſettled in the deſcending line.

About the year 796, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, an league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate wh the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence, No fact of equal antiqu is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice p formed by the learned men of Scotland, in civiliſing the vaſt dominio of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article Learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate natio and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about t year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſub dued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſto rians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelv with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their law The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetua wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other ba barous nations towards the eaſt; who, being maſters of the ſea, haraſſe the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more for tunate than the Engliſh: for while the Danes were erecting a monarch in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs who then governed England were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which ſignify a *large head*, but moſt probably from his great ca pacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts de livered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and a magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect in ferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwick, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were

ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant
ed by Alexander I. and upon his death David I.

endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what
an the glories of this reign, it yet appears that
greateſt princes of that age, whether we regard
or, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he per-
of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her compe-
en for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt
they could be the reſult only of duty and prin-
II., the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his
ons in England, joined to the kingdom of Scot-
ower nearly on an equality with that of England,
land. His actions and adventures, and the re-
d in his own courage, prove him to have been
k. If he appeared to be too laviſh to church-
ous endowments, we are to conſider theſe were
ch he could then civiliſe his kingdom: and the
eady mentioned to have been drawn up by him,
rtal honour. They are ſaid to have been corr-
ction by learned men, whom he aſſembled from
his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſuc-
n Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed,
ion. William's ſon, Alexander II. was ſucceeded,
er III. who was a good king. He married,
ter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had
who married the earl of Flanders's daughter;
who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him,
V. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter
monly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom
poſterity failed; and the crown of Scotland returned
David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm

given, becauſe it is connected with great events.
Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon
ingdon by his eldeſt daughter Margaret, and Ro-
er to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to
tingdon by his youngeſt daughter Iſabel, became
rown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which
iſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the
oth parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt;
nterregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed
on to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic and
s age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having
the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete
pendency upon that of England; and, finding that
hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded
wards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave,
ing it.
d uſed many endeavours to annex the crown of
which were often defeated; and though Edward
e himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were
aſt him on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe
o zealouſly attached to the independency of their
ſolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but

few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which the ſame: and for ſome time they were obliged to temporiſe. Edw availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a p ſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in S land, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or n London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſ jection to him, and moſt barbarouſly carried off or deſtroyed all monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidence of their independen and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetical ſtone, which is ſtill be ſeen in Weſtminſter Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edw finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to ca them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his o ſubjects, by projecting a union, the chief articles of which have ſi taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots trea this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being howe no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſi the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, e cially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland th protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed viol cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more vaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſcipli army England had ever ſeen; for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 hor men completely armed, and 4000 light-armed: and was attended a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops w joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body; Edward, howe was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under W lace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave reg was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotla and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, wh troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated w vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found mean have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and perform many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the ha of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London, as a trai Edward died as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland w a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed 100,00 her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk, but not before he inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh co with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his co try's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own h killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collectin few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed crown, but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Sc land) at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with on

rn iſles and parts of Scotland, where his fa-
e as inexpreſſible, as the courage with which
re them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was in-
ſe and daughters were ſent priſoners to Eng-
his friends and two of his brothers were put to
perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scot-
of Stirling, and improved every advantage
ne diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed
and better appointed than that of his father,
of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of
has been ſuppoſed to be an exaggerated com-
admitted that the army of Bruce did not ex-
em veterans, who had been bred up in a deteſta-

deficient in point of courage, led his powerful
en beſieged by Bruce, who had choſen, with
camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers
earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and
ſe under Bruce were, his own brother ſir Ed-
ſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in
ndolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord
Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army
and required all the courage and firmneſs of
reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that
ſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory.
ſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who
in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch
the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. There
total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000.
h nobility were either killed or taken priſoners.
mmenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe
a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots;
th a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of
d by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from
ſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle hap-

ert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious
his nobility underſtand the principles of civil
were they by religious conſiderations, that, in
ope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide
own, by holding it of England; and that they
Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt.
ivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ire-
rmy, with which he conquered the greateſt part
as proclaimed its king; but by expoſing him-
killed. Robert, before his death, made an ad-

days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes,
ballad made on this memorable victory, which begins as

of England ſore may you mourn,
lemans you have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!
o! ween'd the king of England,
to have won all Scotland?
With rumby low.

vantageous peace with England: and died in 1328, with the character of being the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince; but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as eager as any of his predeceſſors to effect the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid, and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing above eleven years in captivity, paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace, without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an intention to procure the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was moſt ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life; he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the forty-ſixth year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greateſt of his anceſtors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been ſuddenly killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirtieth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh.

Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, being ſlain in battle, in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon, James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his ſubjects, ſo that they greatly increaſed in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not

cure him of his family diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he raſhly entered; and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent; and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility: and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he permitted, at the inſtigation of the clergy, a religious perſecution; though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having rather ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England at Solway-Frith; and he himſelf followed them at a ſmall diſtance, ready to join them upon occaſion. He ſoon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman who was his favourite. The army were ſo much diſguſted with this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh horſe appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole body of the Engliſh army. The Engliſh horſe, ſeeing them flee with ſuch precipitation, cloſely purſued them, and ſlew great numbers, taking priſoners ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he ſoon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her miſconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that, during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland; that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death has given riſe to ſo much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was ungenerouſly detained a priſoner for eighteen years, and afterwards, on motives of ſtate-policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood

from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engli crown, after ſhowing conſiderable abilities in the government of Sco land. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the indepen ency, as it impoveriſhed the people, of Scotland; for, the ſeat of gove ment being removed to England, their trade was checked, their ag culture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for ſituations other countries. James, after a ſplendid but troubleſome reign o his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortun Charles I. That prince by his deſpotic principles and conduct i duced both his Scottiſh and Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms agai him; and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt dra againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in En land, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army; th at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pou to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. Howeve the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody but unſucceſsful attempts to re ſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Crom well, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of h reſtoration, the common-wealth of England and the protector gave la to Scotland.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, w ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and dict them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate union as now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliame would liſten to the propoſal: but, at laſt, partly from conviction, a partly through the effects of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes th ſame with that of England.

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# ENGLAND.

## EXTENT AND SITUATION.

| MILES. | | DEGREES. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 380 | between | 50 and 56 North latitude. |
| Breadth 300 | | 2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude |

Great Britain contains 79,712 ſquare miles, with 119 inhabitants to ea

CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES. THE longeſt day in the northern parts contai 17 hours and 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt the ſouthern near eight hours. It is bounded on the North by t part of the iſland called Scotland; on the Eaſt by the German Ocea on the Weſt by St. George's Channel; and on the South by the En liſh Channel, which parts it from France; and contains 49,450 ſqu miles.

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders Engla liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on p of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the ot hand it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other pla lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that

ongevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe or which England is remarkable, occaſioned by re- e warm vapours of the ſea.

ONS, } Antiquaries are divided with regard to AN. } the etymology of the word *England*; ſome word, ſignifying a level country, but the common e preferable, according to which it is derived from v ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed iginal Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. ng to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; being famous for painting their bodies: other do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern ch is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers ed Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inha- uls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and d natives.

rovinciated England, they divided it into,

which contained the ſouthern parts of the king-

la, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending

nſis, which reached from the Trent far northward s, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

me add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe counties.

invaded England, about the year 450, and when the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to manner of other northern conquerors, the countries he moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole r political confederacy, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms. was choſen from the ſeven kings, by public conſent; archy appears to have ſomewhat reſembled the con- ring the heroic ages.

y the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

| | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| by nd .. | Kent | Canterbury |
| in in .. | Suſſex<br>Surry | Chicheſter<br>Southwark |
| led nd .. | Norfolk<br>Suffolk<br>Cambridge, with<br>The Iſle of Ely | Norwich<br>BurySt.Edmund's<br>Cambridge<br>Ely |
| nd- 12, 60. | Cornwall<br>Devon<br>Dorſet | Launceſton<br>Exeter<br>Dorcheſter. |

| KINGDOMS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| West Saxons continued. | Somerset | Bath |
| | Wilts | Salisbury |
| | Hants | Winchester |
| | Berks | Abingdon |
| 5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792. | Lancaster | Lancaster |
| | York | York |
| | Durham | Durham |
| | Cumberland | Carlisle |
| | Westmoreland | Appleby |
| | Northumberland and Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh | Newcastle |
| 6. East Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746 | Essex | London |
| | Middlesex, and part of Hertford | |
| 7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874. | The other part of Hertford | Hertford |
| | Glocester | Glocester |
| | Hereford | Hereford |
| | Worcester | Worcester |
| | Warwick | Warwick |
| | Leicester | Leicester |
| | Rutland | Oakham |
| | Northampton | Northampton |
| | Lincoln | Lincoln |
| | Huntingdon | Huntingdon |
| | Bedford | Bedford |
| | Buckingham | Aylesbury |
| | Oxford | Oxford |
| | Stafford | Stafford |
| | Derby | Derby |
| | Salop | Shrewsbury |
| | Nottingham | Nottingham |
| | Chester | Chester |

It is the more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account f different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritanc which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from di ferent institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, En land has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, except Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual jo gresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at distance from the capital. The circuits are;

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| I. Home circuit. | Essex | Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford. |
| | Hertford | Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's Stortford, Berkhamstead, Hemsted, and Barnet. |
| | Kent | Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich |

| ES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|
| ..... | Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton. |
| ..... | Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking. |
| ..... | Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Faſt Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth. |
| ..... | Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney-Stratford, and Newport Pagnel. |
| ..... | Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, and Biggleſwade. |
| on .... | Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley. |
| e..... | Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbech. |
| ..... | Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long Melford, Stratford, and Eaſtbergholt. |
| ..... | Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth. |
| ..... | Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Thame. |
| ..... | Abingdon, Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham. |
| r ..... | Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Camden, Stow, Berkley, Durſley, Lechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield. |
| er ..... | Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore. |
| uth .... | Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport. |
| l ..... | Hereford, Leominſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs. |
| ..... | Shrewſbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whitchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport. |

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| Oxford circuit continued.... | Stafford ..... | Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle-u Line, Wolverhampton, Ru Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone. |
| IV. Midland circuit .... | Warwick ..... | Warwick, Coventry, Birming Stratford upon Avon, Tamw Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Athe |
| | Leiceſter..... | Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, A de-la-Zouch, Boſworth, and borough. |
| | Derby..... | Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſw Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balf and Buxton. |
| | Nottingham .... | Nottingham, Southwell, New Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mans Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe |
| | Lincoln..... | Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Gr ham, Croyland, Spalding, Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Ga borough, Louth, and Horncaſt |
| | Rutland..... | Oakham and Uppingham. |
| | Northampton.... | Northampton, Peterborough, ventry, Higham-Ferrers, Br ley, Oundle, Wellingboro Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rocki ham, Kettering, and Rothwell. |
| V. Weſtern circuit .... | Hants ..... | Wincheſter, Southampton, Po mouth, Andover, Baſingſt Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymi ton, Ringwood, Rumſey, Alres and Newport, Yarmouth and Co in the Iſle of Wight. |
| | Wilts..... | Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlboro Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenh Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, B ford and Warminſter. |
| | Dorſet ..... | Dorcheſter, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaf bury, Poole, Blandford, Bridp Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareh and Winburn. |
| | Somerſet ..... | Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunt Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehe Milbourn-Port, Glaſtonbury, W lington, Dulverton, Dunſ Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, A bridge, Chard, Bruton, Shept Mallet, Croſcomb, and Frome. |
| | Devon ..... | Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtable, B deford, Tiverton, Honiton, Da mouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Ol hampton, Aſhburton, Credit Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, A minſter, Plympton, and Ilfracom |
| | Cornwall ..... | Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Sa aſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſto |

| TIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|
| ..... | Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkeard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth. |
| ..... | York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaſter, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knareſborough, Barneſley, Sherborne, Bradford, Tadcaſter, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirſke, Giſborough, Pickering, and Yarum. |
| ..... | Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Caſtle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland. |
| nberland | Newcaſtle, Tinmouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham. |
| r ..... | Lancaſter, Mancheſter, Preſton, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormſkirk, Hawkſhead, and Newton. |
| rland. .. | Appleby, Kendal, Lonſdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleſide, Burton, and Milthorpe. |
| rland .... | Carliſle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglaſs, Egremont, Keſwick, Workington, and Jerby. |

nprehended in theſe circuits; nor Cheſhire, which, , enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The ſame which is divided into four circuits.

| | |
|---|---|
| ſex ..... | London, firſt meridian, north lat. 51. 31. Weſtminſter, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelſea, Highgate, Hampſtead, Kenſington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court. |
| ..... | Cheſter, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Norwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodiſham and Haulton. |

## CIRCUITS of WALES.

| | |
|---|---|
| ..... | Flint, St. Aſaph, and Holywell. |
| gh..... | Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen. |
| gomery .... | Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welch-Pool. |

ing aſſizes, the Northern circuits extend only to York and Lam, Newcaſtle, Appleby, and Carliſle, being held only in the by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

| CIRCUITS. | COUNTIES. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|---|
| North-Weſt circuit. . . | Angleſea . . . . . | Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newbu |
| | Caernarvon . . . . | Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, Pullhilly. |
| | Merioneth . . . . . | Dolgelly, Bala, and Haleigh. |
| South-Eaſt circuit. . . | Radnor . . . . . | Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton. |
| | Brecon . . . . . | Brecknock, Built, and Hay. |
| | Glamorgan . . . . | Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Ne and Swanſey. |
| South-Weſt circuit. . . | Pembroke . . . . . | St. David's, Haverfordweſt, P broke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and N fordhaven. |
| | Cardigan . . . . . | Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llan darn-vawer. |
| | Caermarthen . . . . | Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Llanim very, Landilobawr, Langharn, Lanelthy. |

## IN ENGLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 40 | Counties, which ſend up to parliament . . . . . | 80 knights. |
| 25 | Cities (Ely none, London four) . . . . . | 50 citizens. |
| 167 | Boroughs, two each . . . . . | 334 burgeſſes. |
| 5 | Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrers, and Monmouth), one each | 5 burgeſſes. |
| 2 | Univerſities . . . . . | 4 repreſentati |
| 8 | Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hithe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford), two each. . . . | 16 barons. |

## WALES.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 12 | Counties . . . . . | 12 knights. |
| 12 | Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each . . . . . | 12 burgeſſes. |

## SCOTLAND.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 33 | Shires. . . . . | 30 knights. |
| 37 | Cities and Boroughs . . . . . | 15 burgeſſes. |
| | Total. . . . | 558 |

Beſides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are vided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have be granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county ſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, N wich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton-upon-Hull and Newcaſ upon-Tine, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which th lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which lies in Sc land, and has within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained;

town, though every town is not a borough alled, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to par- the difference between a village or town, and hs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; ld Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parlia- ite borough, that has, or has had, a biſhop; iſolved, yet the city remains. To have ſub- y. Some cities are alſo counties, as before

ND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales ſo much from the nature of the ground, though occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from abitants of each county have made in the culti- , the draining of marſhes, and many other local here carried to a much greater degree of per- ps in any other part of the world, if we except rticular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improve- ge volume. All that can be ſaid, therefore, is, ndly ſeaſon happen, England produces corn not ner own inhabitants, but to bring large ſums of s.

eems to be particularly adapted for rearing ns of trees round the houſes of noblemen and peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the bſerved a decay of that oak timber which an- eets that England put to ſea; but as no public ave been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great nleſs it may be thought that our ſhip-yards have from America or the Baltic.

dded to what has been already ſaid concerning places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted by weſterly winds: but they are ventilated by t in this reſpect England is, to foreigners and ions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It d, that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively e to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inha- o foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a reno-

erved on the Engliſh air, the reader may form which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no mer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other; different appearances take place is very un-

s more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of be obſerved, that they were both travellers. "I muſt r William, in his *Miſcellanea*, part ii. p. 114, edit. 8vo. ate, which I heard the king ſay, and I thought new and England, that loved and eſteemed his own country. It that were reviling our climate, and extolling thoſe of Italy e. He ſaid, He thought that was the beſt climate where he pleaſure, or at leaſt without trouble or inconvenience, the moſt hours in the day; and this he thought he could be in ntry he knew in Europe." "And I believe," adds ſir of the hot and the cold, but even among our neighbours in es themſelves, where the heats or the colds, and changes of moderate) than they are with us."

determined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſome in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as c the middle of December; yet at other times the thermometer in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its v tudes of heat and cold; and, upon on average, September, and ne it October, are the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The n ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconſtancy, how is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth; and it is hardly ev ſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the gr irregularity and the moſt unfavourable appearance of the ſeaſon not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to th improvements of agriculture; for when ſcarcity has been comp of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive ex tions of grain, on account of the drawback and the profit of the retu

The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with lent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may pe that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſom high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply ſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions o Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and ſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many m wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. moſt celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſe and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire: the mineral waters of bridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is u commonly as any other for medical purpoſes: and ſo delicate tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in ing and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one co that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AND MOUNTAINS. } The induſtry of the Engliſh i as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climate in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world ca the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The var high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both c forming the moſt luxuriant proſpects, the corn and meadow groun intermixtures of incloſures and plantation, the noble ſeats, com houſes, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with th vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea ca conveyed by deſcription. The moſt barren ſpots are not witho verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh i than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the king naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. U whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equa land in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitan

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and th enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt n

ire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in York-
lls on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in
Worceſterſhire, Cotſwould in Glouceſterſhire, the
e; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in
however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be

es.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty
ce. The Thames riſes on the confines of Glou-
W. of Cirenceſter: and, after receiving the many
other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon,
g, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſ-
it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſt-
id to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence
nd, after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it
s, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence
rge ſhips to London bridge. It was formerly a re-
among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have
ſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it
to the laſt-mentioned place, for may ages. This
ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials
idges, but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the
ays, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement
e great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland
plying bridges; and the world cannot paralled, for
chitecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected
Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond,
ton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames,
cting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on

y, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames
is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham.
ed the ſecond river for importance in England, and
, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North-Wales; becomes
Pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury: then, turning ſouth,
Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury; where it receives the
having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt di-
s mouth, increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſ-
the Briſtol Channel, near King-road, where lie the
nnot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moor-
re, and, running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line,
into two parts; then, turning north-eaſt on the con-
viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that
hire, and, being joined by the Ouſe and ſeveral other
nouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into
f Hull.

ipal rivers in England are the Ouſe (a Gaëlic word ſig-
nerai), which falls into the Humber, after receiving
y other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls
Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt
berland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth.
The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham
nd falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The
weſt to eaſt, on the borders of Scotland, and falls
ſea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north
land and Cumberland, and, paſſing by Carliſle, falls
below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through

Wiltſhire to Bath, and then, dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſ ſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below city. The Derwent runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberla and, paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little bel The Ribble runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and, paſ by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey r from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then viding Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh Channel be Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and tiquity, and indeed, in ſome places, from the face of the country, meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and verted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham me Wittleſea mere, and Ramſey mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambrid ſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Weſtm land, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire go by the name of Derw waters.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for polit purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſu jects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immen tracts of grounds into foreſts for hunting: and theſe were governed laws peculiar to themſelves, ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and J tices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appoint to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted: a the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Fore Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, el aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpo of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which t cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh and undecayed, though ſome them are above 600 years old.

Metals and minerals.] Among the minerals, the tin-mines Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Gree and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before the Chriſti æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found a method of manufacturing th tin into plates and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the natio An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very lit regarded, till, above 70 years ago, ſir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art manufacturing it; and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportional quantity of lapis-calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; a the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners are ſaid to amou to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, a the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh-coined ſilv is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by the prince's c of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produce ma ble; but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſive hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Nort

re yield alum and ſalt-pits. The Engliſh ſul-
ſequence to the clothing trade, that its exporta-
er ſevere penalties. Pit and ſea-coal is found in
land; but the city of London, to encourage the
iefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland,
Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle
he exportation of coals to other countries is very
s of Northumberland alone ſend every year up-
dron of coals to London; and 1500 veſſels are
hem to that harbour along the eaſtern coaſt of

INAL PRO-
AND LAND. } This is ſo copious a ſubject, and ſuch improvements have been agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts uch muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation corn trade of England has already been noticed; d with any certainty concerning the quantities of as, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain, growing ellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agri-n in England; and their members are ſo public-riodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experi-ſhow that agriculture and gardening may be car-ſtate of perfection than they are in at preſent. e Bath Society upon the ſubject of agriculture are has been the attention of the nation to this im-s preſent majeſty has been pleaſed, Auguſt 31, under the great ſeal, to conſtitute a board for the iculture and internal improvement. The proper is an object ſo peculiarly intereſting to the com-hoſe who moſt aſſiduouſly attend to it are perhaps ſt meritorious citizens of their country.

are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to ninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excel-ears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, necta-berries, raſpberries, and other hortulan produc-what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and nade in ſome counties. The cyder of Devon and ept, and made of proper apples, and in a parti-preferred, by judicious palates, to French white gh to mention thoſe improvements, did we not ob-gland have made the different fruits of the world by ſimple culture, but often by hot-beds and other ure. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and me may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and nd Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to avour is not exalted enough for making of wine: er injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits hen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, tion; ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, roccoli, peas, beans, kidney-beans, ſpinach, beets, e, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks,

ultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and es. In nothing however, have the Engliſh been in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil

ſaintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belo to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary he ſhrubs and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſo Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the diffi and tender culture of hops, which are now become a very conſider article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the q drupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat; but ſome prefer for table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch and Welch cattle, after grazing Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt in the world, whe we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible h been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this vourite and noble animal; and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for t now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabi Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of Engliſh cavalry render them ſuperior to all others in war; and an Eng hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chaſe. Thoſe wh draw carriages in the ſtreets of London are often particularly beauti The exportation of horſes has of late become a conſiderable article of co merce. The breed of aſſes and mules begins likewiſe to be improved a encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds; thoſe that are valuable for t fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are v large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of E land. In ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed rams as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs; and in Lincolnſhire, pa cularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of theſe animals to ſell for 5 It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very r eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces ſhorn annually, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,00 The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the Downs, ſuch as th of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have what farmers call the ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world; but either from the chang ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of Engla by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull-dogs upon one of fierceſt lions in the Tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The maſ however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the differ ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What has been obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game-cocks, which af much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe bird aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive with victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal are likew extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the ſame in England as in other countri turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and cap geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſta wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partrid woodcocks, grouſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of ferent kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, j

s, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, of ſmall birds; canary-birds alſo breed in Eng- y many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy d is peculiar to England.

er ſupplied than England with river and ſea- nds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, h, barbel, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, , and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake fiſh d in ſome freſh-water lakes of Wales and Cum- no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, ngs, pilchard, ſkaite, ſoles. The John-dory, coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the er fiſh are found on the ſame coaſt. As to oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, moſt delicious of ſhell fiſhes, cockles, wilks, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great num- appear in the channel.

s, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes and worms; nats, waſps, and flies; England nearly reſembles he difference, if any, becomes more proper for aphy.

ANTS, MANDIVERSIONS. The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the de- in foreign nations, not excepting republics, it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of nd yet it is certain that this might occaſion- ent, without any violation of public liberty, ake place. With regard to political calcula- fallible, when applied to England. The pro- rs who ſettle in the nation, the emigrations of nd the iſlands, their return from thence, and s employed in ſhipping, are all of them mat- lation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, ngland is more populous than the eſtimators ing to allow. The war with France and Spain, nually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, ſh, by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, ar that number. The decay of population was ot ſo much as it was during the wars in queen half of the numbers were then employed in the

is not probable that England is at preſent na- an ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to tuous liquors, and other modes of living, that ation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities ngland, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably avourable to mankind; but this advantage is terbalanced by the prevailing practice of en- certainly unfavourable to population; and, in- n average, perhaps a married couple has not y now as formerly. I will take the liberty to n, which falls within the cogniſance of almoſt

every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon parish books and public liſts, compared to what they were even in reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to preten aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales; but, in own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly tured, commonly fair, rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their co plexions. It is however, to be preſumed, that the vaſt number of reigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives h given a caſt to their perſons and complexions, different from thoſe their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhape, featu and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the exter graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill more to valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a te affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties domeſtic life.

Of all the people in the world, the Engliſh keep themſelves the m cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſo times forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; inſomuch th before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox took place, it w thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true na in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities, which ſo ſtrongly characte the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearan into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home themſelves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. They are fond of cl and convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bou of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cure for thoſe mel evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronoun them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable cha ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late ye The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate th manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more f quent intercourſe than their foreſathers did. They do not now tra only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, u der the tuition perhaps of a deſpicable pedant or family dependa but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety; and at the more advan ages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions re lated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now v as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the interco become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, conf to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen as do not ſtrike i thoſe high walks of life, affect what we call a ſnug rather than a ſp did way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand, better than any pe in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, eſtates; and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has however been ſerved that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ou to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form are ſ cere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty

nd are oſten diſcernible among tradeſmen.
l conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion
d is the ultimate end of all their application,
good economiſt, with a briſk run of trade,
l of fifty, in a condition to retire from buſi-
urchaſe an eſtate, or ſettle his money in the
nly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the coun-
nty, and expects to be treated on the footing
yle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his

Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in
public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both
feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuf-
able objects are relieved in England with the
very perſons who contribute to thoſe collec-
me aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for
o have a legal demand for their maintenance;
illions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in
le purpoſes. The inſtitutions, however, of
s, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes
ſums beſtowed in building them, the con-
vernors, and even the election of phyſicians,
unqualified, acquire credit, which is the ſame
et heats and cabals, which are very different
ſintereſted charity, owing to the violent at-
ons of friends, and too often even to party

the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real
accidental, and generouſly contribute to the
netimes even by placing them in a more cre-
. The loweſt-bred of the Engliſh are capa-
enerous actions: but they often make an oſten-
n merits, which diminiſhes their value. There
of the Engliſh of all ranks, an unpardonable
lth, above moſt other conſiderations. Riches,
, are often thought to compenſate for the ab-
d quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly
o much addicted to trade and commerce, the
in; and partly from the democratical part of
makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification
for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy,
diſtinctions.

lucation and reading is the moſt accompliſhed
: he is, however, thy and reſerved in his com-
niable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected,
ir natural conſtitution. Living learning and
th their ſuitable regard, even from the firſt-rate
ot unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt pro-
f they are not acquainted with the author.
on of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of
roniſe men of literary abilities; but the pecu-
iven them were but very moderate; and the
h preferments in the ſtate might have earned
owledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which
generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an in-

ſtance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her pre-
ceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as fu
being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 30
a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Po
though a Roman-catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the li
penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was
marked, that his tory friend and companion, the earl of Oxford, wh
ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in bein
papiſt. Indeed a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as w
as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but, fr
the conduct of ſome of them, it ſhould ſeem that ſtate and party ſervi
have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remar
able: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſom
times it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold a
phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt; and all in the ſame perſon.
many of their convivial meetings they are very noiſy, and their wit
often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is p
ticularly apt to be the caſe in large companies; but, in ſmaller and m
ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation and agreeable
ciety are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a qu
lity that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before th
can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing wi
their fiſts; a quality that, perhaps, is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is
conded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. Th
gives the Engliſh ſoldier an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are
be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. The Engliſh co
rage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equal
paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth
danger; but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect up
their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. T
Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their i
provements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical a
they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which
Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſo
all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſe
that are to be found in the nation.

All that has been ſaid concerning the Engliſh is to be underſtood
them in general, as they are at preſent, for it is not to be diſſembled, th
every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their ma
ners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wa
the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and abo
all, the amazing increaſe of territorial as well as commercial prope
in the Eaſt-Indies, introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engl
who have become rich without induſtry, and, by diminiſhing the valu
gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nati
Time alone can ſhow the event; hitherto the conſequence ſeems
have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commerc
ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fa
effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds,
equal or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal m
ners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion
the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs e
travagance of dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſeme

he capital, but all over the trading towns of the

he Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this
noſt total alteration. Their ancient hoſpita-
laces in the country, or is revived only upon
Many of their favourite diverſions are now
; are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos,
es in or near London; but concerts of mu-
g aſſemblies, are common all over the king-
ng, and horſe-races, of which many of the
o infatuation, have already been mentioned.
be offered by way of apology for thoſe diver-
ion which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their
ous diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think
of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe
ſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and
former is ſometimes attended with acts of
will rather murder himſelf, than bring a
as fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even
. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock-
of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among
vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble
oſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death
every ſpectator being concerned in a bet.
The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept
ſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes prac-
eſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common
of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling,
uoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-
, dancing, puppet-ſhows, May-garlands, and,
, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt
art. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and
as frequent in England as the ſhows of gladi-
ohibited. though often practiſed; and all places
ting the royal theatres, are under regulations
ther diverſions, which are common in other
, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling,
like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds,
are perhaps peculiar to them; and theſe are
latter if not introduced, was patroniſed and
t majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales,
a national improvement. The Engliſh are
, in which, however, they are not very expert;
n it, often to the danger and loſs of their lives.
en from the common people a great fund of
anſwering the purpoſes of the rich; for the
e deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they
. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a
been conſidered in various lights.
f both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George
ench; but that of the military officers partook
liment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at
the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves,
gance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People
both ſexes appear, on high occaſions, in cloth

of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets, b
flowered and plain: and it is to the honour of the court, that
foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe
ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as
are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that
pear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt ac
ſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt-Indies. The ſame nobility, and
ſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citiz
that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth and beſt of
The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſ
beaver-hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark-grey frock,
plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large
perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, be
now to dreſs like other gentlemen and men of buſineſs. Few Engl
men, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed p
perty, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field; on wh
occaſions, they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock,
row-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be
than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent maj
the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcr
tion. Few, even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about the
leſs than 10l. in clothing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes,
linen; and even many beggars in the ſtreets appear decent in their dr
In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe;
the appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer, in holiday times, is co
monly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

RELIGION.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſe
that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles
their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe that the ſucceſs of
Romans opened a way for the triumphs of the goſpel of peace. It
certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman arm
were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to Engl
to extend as well as preſerve their conqueſts, it is probable that th
Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſt
viſited this country and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, wh
zeal, diligence, and fortitude, were abundant. But who was the
preacher, or when the preciſe year and period, the want of records lea
us at a loſs; and all the traditions about Joſeph of Arimathea and St. P
ter's preaching the goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering m
tyrdom here, are romantic fables, and monkiſh legends. We have go
authority to ſay, that, about the year 150, a great number of perſo
profeſſed the Chriſtian faith here: and, according to archbiſhop Uſh
in the year 182 there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Briti
churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſeems as
Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the
habitants in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what h
been ſaid in the introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the chur
of Rome in Europe; we ſhall only obſerve in this place, that John Wic
liffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward I
has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly call
in queſtion, and boldly refuted, thoſe doctrines which had paſſed
certain during ſo many ages. The conſtitution of the church is epiſc
pal, and it is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were convert
by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of wh
every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefic

freehold; but in many places their tithes
f the laity. The economy of the church
or the inequality of its livings; ſome of
undred to fourteen hundred a year, and
being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman,
ith any tolerable decency; but this ſeems
s the dignified clergy would adopt and ſup-
he crown, as well as private perſons, has
augmentation of poor livings.
n of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries,
rge incomes, ſome of them exceeding in
hich reaſon the revenues of a rich deanery,
nexed to a poor biſhopric. At preſent, the
nd, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt
he value of their tithes increaſes with the
h of late have been amazing in England.
ver ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have
he ſupreme heads of the church; but this
ing; as it only denotes the regal power to
erences, or, in other words, to ſubſtitute
e before the reformation, with regard to
al economy of the church. The kings of
eccleſiaſtical diſputes, unleſs by preventing
agitate them, and are contented to give a
he clergy.
nder this deſcription of the monarchical
by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four bi-
Sodor and Man, who, not being poſſeſſed of
it in the houſe of peers*. The two arch-
ury and York, who are dignified with the
former is the firſt peer of the realm, as
gliſh church. He takes precedence, next
es and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to
n all affairs that were formerly cogniſable
n not repugnant to the law of God, or the

ubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's
r from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it
timate between the revenues of each ſee and thoſe of

CHBISHOPRICS.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12 | 2 | York ..... | *L.* | 1610 | 0 0 |

BISHOPRICS.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | Chicheſter, ..... | 677 | 1 | 3 |
| 1 | 3 | St. Aſaph, ..... | 187 | 11 | 8 |
| 12 | 8 | Saliſbury, ..... | 1385 | 5 | 0 |
| ecedency | | Bangor, ..... | 151 | 16 | 3 |
| and the | | Norwich, ..... | 834 | 11 | 7 |
| ority of | | Glouceſter, ..... | 515 | 7 | 3 |
| | | Lincoln, ..... | 894 | 18 | 1 |
| 18 | 6 | Landaff, ..... | 154 | 14 | 2 |
| 1 | 3 | Briſtol, ..... | 294 | 11 | 0 |
| 11 | 0 | Carliſle, ..... | 531 | 4 | 9 |
| 4 | 0 | Exeter, ..... | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| 17 | 3 | Peterborough, ..... | 414 | 17 | 8 |
| 1 | 8 | Oxford, ..... | 331 | 11 | 0 |
| 13 | 3 | St. David's, ..... | 426 | 2 | 1 |

king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſi his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Winchef Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Wor ter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouc ter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and in Wales, St. David's, Lan St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws England, ſuch extenſive powers, that, ever ſince the death of arch ſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given), the governm of England has prudently thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of con derable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended w excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood-roy and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhoprics of Durham, Carli Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland he has the power o palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of Your Lordſhip, ſty "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temp ral barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the biſhopric London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, requi no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblem Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to con crate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirm ation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant miniſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſha goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant ſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to v their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentione but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, f ther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion clergymen of eminence and merit; but intereſt often prevails over me in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, wh office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year; but their offi are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them the rural deans, formerly ſtyled arch-preſbyters, who ſignify the biſho pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts a deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodg in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, a anſwers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They convoked at the ſame time with every parliament; and their buſineſs to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account w have advanced new opinions inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the chur of England. Some clergymen of an intolerant and perſecuting ſpi during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George raiſed the power of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent wi the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo th the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members gether, and of diſſolving them; and, ever ſince, they have not been p mitted to ſit for any time in which they could do buſineſs.

e moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of
in church matters, from the judgment of the
l to this. The proceſſes run in the name of
n of the arches; and the advocates who plead
ors of the civil law. The court of audience
this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was
ogative court is that wherein wills are proved,
. The courts of peculiars, relating to cer-
ction among themſelves, for the probate of
empt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of
n fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of de-
rom its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated
commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court.
urt of his own, called the conſiſtory court.
viſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter

is now, beyond any other national church,
Ioderation is its governing character; and it
is prevented from worſhipping God in that
ences approve. Some ſevere laws were, in-
thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who did not aſſent
f the church of England; but theſe laws
1779, religious liberty received a conſider-
t which was then paſſed for granting a legal
niſters and ſchoolmaſters, without their ſub-
of the church of England. Not to enter upon
ion under Henry VIII. it is certain that epi-
ng the few years from the civil wars under
of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in Eng-
nowledging the king the head of the church,
ing all religious perſecution and intolerancy;
ve multiplied in England, it is from the ſame
uſneſs has prevailed; that is, a tenderneſs in
ther conſcience or liberty. The bias which
ery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon,
Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the
reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo
ing a ſingular purity of life and manners.
pious men, and ſome of them good patriots,
modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame
principles of civil and religious liberty; but
ts have undergone a conſiderable change.
church of Scotland, was originally derived
ituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition
ing the government of the church in a parity
odern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of
very little from the independents, or con-
called from holding the independency of con-
ut any reſpect to doctrine; and, in this ſenſe,
England are now become *independents*. As to
reſbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of
tly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning
f their writings are held in high eſtimation by
other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The
of the independent and baptiſt miniſters. The
y Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that

infants are proper ſubjects of baptiſm; and in the baptiſm of adults th practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, wh are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general bapt are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The mo rate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters w affection and friendſhip; and though the hierarchy of their chur and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, th conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the ba tiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of t eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bou to believe the doctrinal parts of the Thirty-nine articles, which they a obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to r formation. Some doctrines, which were formerly generally conſider as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly co troverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſh have been eſtabliſhed, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their co duct.

The *Methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the churc of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect They pretend to great fervour and devotion: and their founder though that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken fro a common-prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of in difference: he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His fol lowers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But the ſect of methodiſ is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitfield and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader. Mr. Whitfield died in th year 1770; but the places of worſhip, erected by him near London, ar ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a gre reſpect for his memory. Some of the Calviniſtic doctrines were op poſed by Mr. Weſley and his followers, particularly that of predeſtina tion. He erected a very large place of public worſhip near Moorfield and had under him a conſiderable number of ſubordinate preachers, wh ſubmitted to their leader very implicitly, propagate his opinions, an make proſelytes throughout the kingdom with great induſtry. After very long life, ſpent in the moſt ſtrenuous endeavours to do good, an having been bleſt in reforming the morals of thouſands of the low ranks of ſociety, he died in 1791. There are alſo a variety of ſubordinat ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians* who have their ſeparate followers, but very few at London and othe places in England.

The *Quakers* are a religious ſect which took its riſe about the middle o the laſt century. A ſummary account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and Preſerver of the univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his ſon, the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection, and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe Scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the Word of God, and not to

ey highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſub-
n which they were given forth.
is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man
endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or
which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to
and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his
is altogether inſufficient to overcome.
ence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the
and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip,
attention of the mind from the ſecret influence
ly One. They think it incumbent on Chriſtians
to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their
em; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from
eptable to God than any performances, how-
ate in the will of man.
rage any miniſtry but that which is believed to
f the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain
any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone;
one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female
ight qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe
dification of the church.
nd what is termed the Lord's ſupper, they be-
water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an
enſation.
her rite, they believe that communion between
not maintained by any external performance;
ation of his divine nature by faith.
oaths and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's
r not at all." From the precepts of the goſpel,
Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they
ntings are repugnant to the goſpel.
s of the months and days which were given in
alſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of
n in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo
n. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel and
of rejoicing and mourning, and obſervations
eem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and
; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain
they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting
rom the ſober duties of life.
diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes
he poor—the maintenance of good order—the
s which they believe it is their duty to bear
lp and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in

gment that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue
enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and
ding to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt
ted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of
ſowned."

William Penn, one of the ſociety, founded the
, and introduced therein a plan of civil and
arly of the latter, at that time unexampled.
province was at firſt, and for many years,
quakers; but as perſons of other perſuaſions

increaſed, and became partakers of power, they grew uneaſy at t
cific plan of the quakers, and at length ſucceeding to eſtabliſh ſuch
of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles
latter, theſe gradually withdrew themſelves from active employm
the ſtate. For ſome time previous to the late revolution, few o
were found in any other ſtation than that of private citizens; and,
its progreſs, their refuſing to arm expoſed them to much ſuffer
diſtraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in ſupport
war.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religi
its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Thou
penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſeve
they are either not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that the Ro
tholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are fou
for the double taxes upon their landed property; and as they a
ject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) at
public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burthens, th
liſh papiſts are in general in good circumſtances as to their priv
tunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately b
pealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, th
vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by
rance and bigotry. The papiſts now ſeem to be convinced
change of government, inſtead of bettering, would hurt their ſit
becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which
undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier pe
This ſenſible conſideration has of late made the Roman catholics to
as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any
liſh papiſts, excepting thoſe who were bred or had ſerved abroad,
engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though thoſe at hom
moſt carefully obſerved, few, or none of them, were found guilty of
practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious ſe
it has alſo for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied
different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers
ligion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it h
been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſt
and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are
found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive
no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who ar
*deiſts* or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe that this c
men is much more numerous in ſome popiſh countries than in
land. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fo
and ſuperſtitions of the Roman church, that men who think fre
naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo
vantageous a form; and this appears to be in fact very much th
abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of
it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to b
judiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into a
amination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appea
the writings of the deiſts againſt Chriſtianity have been of any re
ſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments
favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have bee
means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of m
infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a com

guage in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the The Saxon, however, predominates; and the from the French, being radically Latin, are s particularly the Spaniards and the Italians, , would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader; all the properties, without many of the defects, ages. It is more energetic, manly, and ex- French or the Italian; more copious than the nent than the German, or the other northern r, ſubject to ſome conſiderable provincialities much difference in the pronunciation of the counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of ll-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little nciation all over the kingdom. People of for- England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either French, and many of them the Italian and obſerved that foreign nations have great diffi- few Engliſh who talk Latin; which is perhaps uage is much diſuſed in England, even by the

NED MEN.] England may be looked upon as of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred me of the Saxons, when barbariſm and igno- f Europe; nor has there, ſince this time, been eſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed gs or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a mes, down to this day, would form a moderate

ns for the benefit of ſtudy partake of the cha- They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide mbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the con- ; witneſs, the two univerſities of Oxford and that are not to be matched in the world, and amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who on of the lives and characters of thoſe learned he reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among eral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the n princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted s.

k ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the y of learning and natural philoſophy, Roger runner in ſcience to the great Bacon, lord Ve- to ſir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious luſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geo- nology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, lology, and upon the impediments of know- Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year Mr. Walpole (the late lord Orford) has pre- ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have and the Muſes; and to his work we muſt refer. England reſembles a galaxy of literature *; and

* See the Biographia Britannica.

it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though wiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge that both ample and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite art greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. A of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned for to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life greatly enc theſe foreigners, and ſhowed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt parts of learning, had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, f an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigoted of queen Mary. Elizabeth, her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned pr She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. ſhe ſhowed herſelf a great politician; but ſhe would have been amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity: for thou was no ſtranger to Spenſer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed and obſcurity. Though ſhe reliſhed the beauties of the divine Shakſpear we know not that he was diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favouri earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of S ampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England contin the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He himſelf no great author; but his example had a conſiderable effect his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of po divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of know Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, who has been al mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high cellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden and hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day fa in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimila among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, eſpecially ſcul painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Va Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capita a ſecond Athens; and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favouri duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid o amazing ſum of 400,000 pounds upon his cabinet of painting curioſities.'

The earl of Arundel was another Mæcenas of that age, and g diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his collection of antiquities, particular famous marble inſcriptions, called the Arundelian marbles, now pre at Oxford. Charles and his court had little or no reliſh for poetry ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben J from 100 marks to 100 pounds per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts ſuffered

of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding inter-
ed men, however, found their ſituations
was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments,
their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every
any works of great literary merit appeared
ction. Uſher, Walton, Willis, Harrington,
mber of other great names, were unmoleſted
ſurper; and he would alſo have filled the
, could he have done it with any degree of

was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great pro-
natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſti-
The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies;
ſelf, England never abounded more with
n in his reign. He loved painting and
nificent to the former than the latter. The
by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but
in proportion to its merit, though it was
much as has been commonly apprehend-
II., notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his
e arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan
ed with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke,
Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Wal-
d Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more ma-
ner energy, than it had ever known before.
ny of its native graces; and though Eng-
boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet ur
a more general regularity than had ever
tecture. Nor was ſir Chriſtopher Wren
ill as an architect *. His knowledge was
eries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contri-
of the new-eſtabliſhed Royal Society. Some
Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flou-

he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is
province of literature by thoſe compoſitions
gliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for
th of erudition, never were equalled in any

d Locke adorned the reign of William III.
m for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon
far from being liberal to men of genius.
in his reign, merely by the excellency of the
ted.
aders are not unacquainted with the im-
and all the polite arts, received under the
d which put her court at leaſt on a footing

te lord Orford) ſays, that a variety of knowledge
plicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the
ui. So many great architects as were employed on
he whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a
, the largeſt palace, and the moſt ſumptuous ho-
, are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored
e built about fifty pariſh churches, and deſigned the

with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a ne ſprung up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Con Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers both in verſe and need but to be mentioned, to be admired; and the Engliſh w triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral phil kept pace with the polite arts; and even religious and political d contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and whi been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and va knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and f them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was h no Mæcenas: yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding, numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The ben biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prela it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobili miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other depart of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the defi the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. P was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between gover and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of began to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progre been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academ been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favoura the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a g attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in g But, notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine art been far from meeting with that public patronage to which the ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paint with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor hiſtorical painter much patroniſed: though the Britiſh artiſts of th ſent age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel we call the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are a with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which an country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs appointments, for the laſt 200 years, of their lord-chancellors, wh the higheſt and the moſt uncontrolable judicial ſeat in the kin and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that, during that time bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial aff The few inſtances that may be alleged to the contrary fix no tion of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord-chancellor was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices; but malevolence itſ not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favour his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemi his lordſhip was, in the judgment of every man of candour and con fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his never was accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before chancellor.

ed that neither pulpit nor bar eloquence have
England: but this is owing to the genius of
ws. The ſermons of their divines are often
as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the
England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſon-
unaccountable notion has however prevailed
clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompa-
if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes
owers of language with which they are adorned.
may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince
laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt
ion. We do not, however, mean to inſinuate
Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elo-
no clergy in the world can equal them in the
language; though, if they ſtudied more than
cution, they would probably preach with more
of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of
ttended with the amazing effects we daily ſee,
nſequence if they were exerted in reality, and
learning?

re of ſo peculiar a caſt, that the ſeveral pleadings
or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech;
hink that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner
s appearance in Weſtminſter-hall. The Engliſh
h they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in

g not being confined to that precedent which
ts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo
loquence as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes;
made by both parties in parliament in the reign of
t have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the pre-

y, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts
g life, have been carried to a great degree of per-
The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical
culture and mechaniſm are now reduced in Eng-
hat, too, without any public encouragement but
ate noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate them-
. In ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various
y ſtand unrivalled.

We have already mentioned the two univerſities of
, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned
e, and ſome have ventured to ſay, than all other
t is certain that their magnificent buildings, which
cture rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the rich
al eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inha-
ne ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive
o reſpectable are they in their foundations, that
two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their
s have a civil jurisdiction over their ſtudents, the
ndependency. Their colleges, in their revenues and
e of many other univerſities.

re twenty colleges and five halls: the former are
d, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain
iverſity is of great antiquity: it is ſuppoſed to ha-

been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans; and ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecr place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſi the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that th excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred bui colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and for grammar.

The univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and fou but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileg colleges and halls are in every reſpect the ſame.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is a moſt elegant edifice, execu tirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen t pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructur in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient ſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſteri given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The antiquities of Engl either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon iſh, or Anglo-Normannic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, th great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities ar circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge in Wiltſhire, probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. henge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, and others, deſcribed as a lar circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circ two ovals, which are thus compoſed; the upright ſtones are pla three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortiſes in the up for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wro little with a chiſſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſoms, or thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is nearly one hu and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle the walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſin awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be me in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other of England, as well as in Scotland, and the Iſles, which have been a mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and t mental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtati the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their comma The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil a as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numer one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing th Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stra Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, the Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The Via Militaris, called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lin where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out t weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, how be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in Eng many of which ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a

which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards
breaking out put an end to the undertaking.
oman camps are diſcernible all over England;
ttle defaced, near Dorcheſter in Dorſetſhire,
mphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo
rtifications appear to have been ſo complete,
to believe that they were the conſtant ha-
oldiers, in England; though it is certain, from
pavements that have been found in different
icers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas.
been found in England; and, perhaps, upon
any remains of their fortifications and caſtles
a later date. The private cabinets of noble-
well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt
coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which
nd; but the moſt amazing monument of the
is the prætenture or wall of Severus, com-
wall, running through Northumberland and
Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being
h. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes
Severus built it with ſtone forts and turrets at
ch might have a ſpeedy communication with
ded all along by a deep ditch, or vallum, to the
way to the ſouth.

in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edi-
h. At Wincheſter is ſhown the round table
names of his knights. The antiquity of this
by Camden and later writers, perhaps with
itiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of
burying-place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe
ther by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts.
antiquity preſent themſelves all over the king-
not to be diſcerned from the Normannic; and
ns ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their
arters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with
r names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing
s always performed by a clergyman, who affixed
very donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs.
ngland are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon.
round, and they are generally built upon emi-
ſquare.

nglo-Normannic monuments, which we chooſe
gh the princes under whom they were raiſed
yet the expenſe was defrayed by Engliſhmen,
rk-minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey,
ecimens to be found in Europe of that Gothic
in building before the recovery of the Greek
All the cathedrals and old churches in the
in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's. In
ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the
s uncertain whether the artificial excavations
England are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That
Eyegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems
ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives,
on. It contains an oblong-ſquare hall, round

which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitt tradition ſays that it was the room in which the barons during the wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft ticable; but it is hard to ſay where the excavation, wh in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four wide, cauſe the work is fallen in, in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, tha count can only be given. The Bath waters are unive both for drinking and bathing. Spas of the ſame kin Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkſhire; at Tunb Epſom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Iſlingto There alſo are many remarkable ſprings, of which ſo nated either with ſalt, as that at Droitwich in Worceſt phur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancaſhire; or b ter, as that at Pitchford in Shropſhire. Others have a lity, as that near Lutterworth, in Leiceſterſhire; and a the Weſt-riding in Yorkſhire. And, finally, ſome ebb an of the Peak in Derbyſhire, and Laywell near Torbay, w and fall ſeveral times in an hour. To theſe we may ad able fountain near Richard's-caſtle in Herefordſhire, c Bone-well, which is generally full of ſmall bones, like th fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither h yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water i flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hou ſtrong a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The flu burn when taken out of the well *.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſiti Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mould never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles place, is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock; bu is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line the laſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. Poole's Hole, near Buxton, for ſeveral paces, is very low, into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſo who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, th it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſ to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt cavern. water which hang from the roof, and on the ſides, h effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from ried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quali in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the h imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the trance into that ſtupendous cavern at Caſtleton, which deouſneſs, named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and u feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, meaſure, ſubſiſt by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, by four ſtreams of water, and then is thought impaſſab

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon wa

a beautiful appearance, being checquered with

nd are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We
, in Yorkſhire, are found certain ſtones reſem-
eaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral
l, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which,
nly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents,
generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glou-
nd reſembling cockles, oyſters, and other teſta-
Thoſe curioſities, however, are often magnified by

RS, AND OTHER PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. London *, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, is
n. It appears to have been founded between
ar and Nero; but by whom, is uncertain; for
, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's
me the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled
and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great;
a oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles,
s. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee;
iſhops of London and York, and another Eng-
council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled
rom ſome of his coins.

ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and
city of ſurpriſing extent, of prodigious wealth,
ve trade. This city, when conſidered with all
hat ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty,
nd the admiration of the whole world. London
it has an intimate connexion with all the coun-
is the grand mart of the nation, to which all
dities, from whence they are again ſent back into
n, and to every part of the world. From hence
by land and water are conſtantly employed; and
circulation in the national body, which renders
igorous, and in a proſperous condition; a cir-
beneficial to the head and the moſt diſtant mem-
ere as rich as noblemen: witneſs their incredible
and there is no place in the world where the
e ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are bet-

e banks of the Thames, a river which, though not
eſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any
g continually filled with fleets ſailing to or from
s: and its banks, from London-bridge to Black-
continued great magazine of naval ſtores, con-
docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the build-
uſe of the merchants, beſide the places allotted
ts and lighters; and the king's yards down the
of men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles
it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all

* 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and
180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500
, 600 miles north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stock-
drid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360
le, 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſe foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the It riſes regularly from the water ſide, and, extending itſelf on both along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt, kind of amphitheatre, towards the north, and is continued for ne miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and pop villages, the country-ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whithe latter retire for the benefit of freſh air, and to relax their minds fro hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the pro of the ſubject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed fo extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its tent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt is generally allowed above ſeven miles, from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar; and its bre in ſome places three, in others two, and in others, again, not much a half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 m or, according to a modern meaſurement, the extent of contin buildings is 35 miles, two furlongs, and 39 roods. But it is much e to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built by number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and f the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels, of the e bliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belongin the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c.; 26 independent meetings; 34 p byterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meet houſes for the uſe of foreign embaſſadors, and people of various ſects; three Jews' ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religi worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckon the 21 out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a gr number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes; about 20 ſpitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public priſons; 15 fleſh-marke 1 market for live cattle; 2 other markets more particularly for her and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c.; 10 inns of court; public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, & 3 bridges; 49 halls for companies; 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchoo and 131 charity ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor childr 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 ale-houſes; 1000 hackn coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys; 1 150,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, ab 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſu annually the following articles of proviſions:

| | |
|---|---|
| Black cattle | 98,2 |
| Sheep and lambs | 711,4 |
| Calves | 194,7 |
| Swine | 186,0 |
| Pigs | 32,0 |
| Poultry and wild-fowl, innumerable | |
| Mackarel, ſold at Billingſgate | 14,740,0 |
| Oyſters, buſhels | 115,5 |
| Small boats of cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh | 1,5 |
| Butter, pounds weight, about | 16,000,0 |

| | |
|---|---|
| out | 20,000,000 |
| | 7,000,000 |
| | 1,172,494 |
| | 798,495 |
| | 3,044 |
| nd other diſtilled | 11,000,000 |
| above | 11,000,000 |

built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about
d upon wool, which in the courſe of time gave
was built upon wool-packs: from that time it
ations and improvements, particularly ſince the
es were taken down, and the whole rendered
iful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad,
foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames, where
as at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide
s conſiderably larger.

eckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant
own in the world. It is built entirely of ſtone,
er at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad;
oader than at London bridge. On each ſide
, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The
feet; having on each ſide a fine foot-way for
14 piers, and 13 large and two ſmall arches,
ne centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt de-
m the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of
52 feet. It is computed that the value of
materials is always under water. This mag-
n in 1738, and finiſhed 1750, at the expenſe of
parliament.

t inferior to that of Weſtminſter, either in
ſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the
rchitect to employ elliptical arches; which,
effect; and many perſons even prefer it to
bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in
52,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the
almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of
commands a view of the Thames from the lat-
vers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking

aul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and
in the world. The length within is 500 feet;
arble pavement to the croſs on the top of the
of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and
n of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at
reſpects, it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the
ppher Wren, and, undoubtedly, the only work
ever was completed by one man. He lived to
the building 37 years after he himſelf laid the
acres of ground, though the whole length of
re than the width of St. Peter's. The expence
re of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals,
ſterling.

the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a ve-

nerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Ed the Confeſſor: king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and H VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory o deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments er to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commande ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, a year, out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admir its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of ſir topher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Ma Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt compl their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid dow rule for ſuch erections. Few churches in and about London are out ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Gard worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Ma in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a per point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an el taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and propr to recommend them. The banqueting-houſe at Whitehall is t very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the reſidence; and, as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its metry and ornaments are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of tecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean and no advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid the largeſt room in the world, the roof of which is not ſupported b lars: it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the fineſt kind. Here are held the coronation-feaſts of our kings and queens the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas: and, ſtairs, that of exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the cha the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, i ly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric orde ceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 20 high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, w about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like a with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, on ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſuffe Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically repreſented in-bas The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcripti one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation, and the other its ſplendid re tion; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhowing when the pil begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, whi begun by ſir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in amounted to upwards of 13,000l.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble building, and is ſaid t coſt above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, t laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower, Bank of Engla New Treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at hall, the Manſion-houſe, or houſe of the Lord-mayor, the Cuſtom Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public bui

lifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spencer's
, and Buckingham-houſe in St. James's-park;
-houſe near Hyde-park; the duke of Devon-
of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's in
mberland-houſe in the Strand; the duke of
houſe *, in Bloomſbury; with a number of others
y; but theſe would be ſufficient to fill a large

ous city is happily ſupplied with abundance of
names and the New River, which is not only
every family, but, by means of fire plugs every
of which are depoſited with the pariſh-officers,
ure ſecured from the ſpreading of fire; for theſe
d, than there are vaſt quantities of water to ſup-

as been attended with another advantage: it has
npanies, who inſure houſes and goods from fire.
d the recovery, in caſe of loſs, is eaſy and certain.
keeps a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all
nce in caſe of fire; and who are, on all occca-
terous, and diligent: but though all their la-
ceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring
hat muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the
) of what he has inſured.
on in 1666, London (which, like moſt other
from ſmall beginnings) was totally inelegant,
lthy; of which latter misfortune many melan-
ticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt,
rowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable
ings, that confined the putrid air, and joined
s, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city
ential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed
ity, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that

depoſited in Montague-houſe. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; parliament was only in conſequence of his leaving, by will, l hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, the uſe of the public, on condition that the parliament executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian li-ripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed like-a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. ration of its great uſefulneſs, was graciouſly pleaſed to add of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of

nſiſts of an amazing number of curioſities; among which are f drawings, manuſcripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 , ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about &c. of agate, jaſper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125 Precious 56. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,795. Cryſtals, ſpars, &c. s, 1,275. Earths, ſands, ſalts, 1,035. Bitumens, ſulphurs, , &c. 388. Corals, ſponges, &c. 2,421. Teſtacea or ſhells, &c. &c. 659. Aſteriæi, trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Cruſtaceæ, ellæ-marinæ, ſtar-fiſhes, &c. 173. Fiſh, and their parts, &c. s, eggs, and the neſts of different ſpecies, 1,172. Quadrupeds, , &c. 521. Inſects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus lants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. , 2,098. Mathematical inſtruments, 55.—A catalogue of all mber of large volumes.

time, was productive of conſequences which made ample amen the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful th former; yet it by no means had the character of magnificence gance, in many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch w infatuation of thoſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and plan of the great ſir Chriſtopher Wren was totally diſregarded a crificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property; views did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nati general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has been aſſerted muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kin would, inconteſtably, have been the moſt magnificent and elegant the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſo foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have be an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable neſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is be abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the p plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtance pear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition a eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the bord ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its b are extremely mean and inconvenient; and the want of regularity uniformity in the ſtreets of the city of London, and the mean aver to many parts of it, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the gran of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildi are likewiſe thruſt up in corners, in ſuch a manner as might tempt reigners to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The provements of the city of London for ſome years paſt have however very great; and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general ſpacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt riv Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the nam Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet-houſe. The firſt, being pri property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On ſite of Durham-yard was raiſed, upon arches, the pile of the Adelphi, brated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſub rancous apartments, anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general ben Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of governm hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Tem ſtood Somerſet houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very ma ficent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the uſe of the R Society, the Royal Academy of painting and ſculpture, and the Society Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantage to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be knowledged, that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal among all grees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving enlightening the ſtreets is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ra and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral m around, upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly pla on each ſide at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchm

h other. Nothing can appear more brilliant viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads e principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New &c. convey an idea of elegance and magni-

rovements worthy notice, may be included the cery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in honour to a people celebrated for their cleanli-y. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds oſe wretched beings who ſet defiance to all laws re alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, of a free open air.

y fabric that deſerves the name of a royal pa-chiefly through its beautiful and commanding form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before ry, impregnable. Hampton-court was the fa-William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and s, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. ome good pictures; but nothing equal to the e by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of ns of Raphael, which, for deſign and expreſ-ter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent ma-the gallery built for them at Hampton-court formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's James's is commodious, but has the air of a ſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch is remarkable only for its gardens. Other to the king, are far from deſerving the name

rior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, e neighbourhood of London, and in every part the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation nt of view. In theſe alſo the princely fortunes ſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ingham and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſ-n the world.

of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an hat is to be met with in any other part of all of them are complete without and within, mbers being ſuitable to each other, both in and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It uſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the , which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural landſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult itating nature, and uniting beauty with mag-

hat we ſhould here enter into a particular de-ns of England, which would far exceed the all therefore only touch upon ſome of the moſt

econd city in the Britiſh dominions, for trade, its inhabitants. It ſtands upon the north r Avon; and the two parts of the city are

connected by a ſtone bridge. The city is not well built; but it poſed to contain 15,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. H cathedral and eighteen pariſh churches, beſides ſeven or eigh places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian William the Third, there is a cuſtom-houſe, with a quay half a length, ſaid to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for and landing of merchants' goods. The exchange, where the m and traders meet, is all of freeſtone, and is one of the beſt of its Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the riv It is very populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through w four gates and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſh church a very noble cathedral, or minſter, it being one of the fineſt buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in bre feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, e that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wi eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arc forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt Gothic arch rope. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the adorned with ſtatues of all the kings of England, from William t man to Henry VI.; and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine mar pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a Gothic chapter-houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe is a noble ſtructure, and which was deſigned by the late earl lington. The city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over th Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt-Saxo and the walls, which at this time incloſe it, were built by king A who encompaſſed it alſo with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities land, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its f more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh beſides chapels, and five large meeting-houſes, within the walls of The trade of Exeter, in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to th means of ſluices.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes deſcent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral here is a and magnificent ſtructure; and there are alſo five pariſh churches

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Tren divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cath founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the but was ſo completely repaired ſoon after the Reſtoration, that one of the nobleſt Gothic ſtructures in England. Litchfield i to be the moſt conſiderable city in the north-weſt of Englan

Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a nob that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches, over the Dee, into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churc ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and croſſing one straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were firſt erected fleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth

hence there is a pleaſant walk round the city
here it is intercepted by ſome of the towers over
nce there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the

great antiquity, and appears to have been of
me of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of
f the Avon: and a way is cut to it through the
four cardinal points. The town is populous,
s and regular, and all meet in the centre of the

is large and populous: it has a handſome town
gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with
eet high, which is adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral
e as life.
at, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and
won on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne
are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles.
as finiſhed in 1358, at the expenſe of above
hic building, the moſt elegant and regular
in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful ſpire
e, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in
of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet,
lting 80 feet. The church has a cloiſter, which
f as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The
an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and
pon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too
or the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that
uilding is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in

k its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the
ch this place has been long celebrated, and much
s for drinking the Bath waters are the ſpring and
ſon begins with April, and ends with June; the
ith September, and laſts to December; and ſome
the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt fre-
d in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two
conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune,
muſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there
n 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants.
ately erected here are extremely elegant, particu-
e North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the

antly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking
runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and
le. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and
e.
rld has ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniences for
s of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regu-
ngland), Plymouth (by far the beſt dock-yard),
and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich,
men, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for
xpenſe.

MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce
e raiſed the Engliſh to be the firſt and moſt pow-
world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be

tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the re
Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of
merce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Vi
but left the expenſe attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects
indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trad
execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes f
Engliſh trade. The Eaſt-India company owes to him their ſucce
exiſtence; and Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies ri
him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand
that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latte
during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the natio
greatly increaſed. It is not intended to follow commerce through a
fluctuations, but only to give a general repreſentation of the comm
intereſt of the nation.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to
taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the prote
religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſt
and made all the popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it bec
neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighb
and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them f
impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become
great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures
Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every na
imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill
mother-country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made,
profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced,
few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidere
the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty a
called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power, wa
firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact
which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the ne
diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal ha
fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter o
ſhipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europ
alarm, till the armada he had raiſed at a vaſt expenſe for the conque
England was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end, to the n
power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards,
feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure th
inſolence of their maſters; they therefore revolted, and, after a ſtrugg
which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erecte
independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem
government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to r
ſchemes for future proſperity, they eaſily perceived, that, as their te
tories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve th
ſelves only by that power which is the conſequence of wealth; and t
by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, we
was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſpo
tion of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of comme

roſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs per-
d before; and by which the poor tenants of
ſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and
reateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance
nd whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt,
t of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new

ntered upon the government, the cuſtoms
; at the Reſtoration, they were let to farm
conſiderably above double that ſum before
of London, before we had any plantations,
nſiderable, were computed about 100,000;
beth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and
number. In thoſe days we had not only
our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us
l, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and
ne from France. Portugal furniſhed us
e of America was brought to us from
Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of
price. The legal intereſt of money was
non price of our land, ten or twelve years'
t our manufactures were few, and thoſe
of Engliſh merchants very ſmall; and
to what lately belonged to the American

countries, the moſt proper for trade; as
land, as from the freedom and excellency
s natural products, and conſiderable manu-
r country produces many of the moſt ſub-
ties; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool,
ner, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c.
other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes
world, and highly valued by all nations for
rength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry,
r own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that
xport manufactured in great guns, carcaſes,
almoſt incredible, is the value likewiſe of
orted, viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes,
errings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice,

ture in Europe but what is brought to great
woollen manufacture is the moſt conſider-
nd quantity that of any other nation. Hard-
: locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other
ce; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and
articles; and our clocks and watches are in

hat branch which we enjoyed excluſively,
colonies, was long regarded as the moſt ad-
ſeparation of the American States from
induſtry, and manufactures, of the latter,
New markets have opened, the returns from
eſs tedious than thoſe from America. By
of markets, the ſkill and ingenuity of our
range; the productions of their labour have

been adapted to the wants, not of riſing colonies, but of nations th wealthy and the moſt refined; and our commercial ſyſtem, no long ing on the artificial baſis of monopoly, has been rendered more ſolid as more liberal. The trade of England to the United States, in a of articles, is likewiſe very conſiderable.

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh in the Weſt In Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. V Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas or Somers' I and the Bahama or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean, beſides nico and St. Lucia, lately taken from the French.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt-India Iſlands conſiſts ch ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indig terials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs and pre for theſe, the exports from England are oſnaburghs, a coarſe kind o with which the Weſt-Indians now clothe their ſlaves; linen of al with broad-cloth and kerſeys, for the planters, their overſeers, milies; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies, and houſehold ſervants; ha caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; and millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron-ware, a files, axes, hatchets, chiſſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, a nails, lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper-wares; toys, co pantiles; cabinet-wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed nufactured in Great Britain, alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſort dia goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of th ſtupendous political as well as commercial machines that is to with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a co which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of mo vanced to the government. This company exports to the Eaſt In kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullio quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilks, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, ſalt-petre for home-co tion; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all th manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, England ſends, in her own bottoms, woollen clo lead, and iron, hardware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdigris cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw ſilks, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and for articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. a in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards di through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at pre a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt-India goods; and brings back raw and thr wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fr lours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of th to England is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, t fiſh, corn, iron and braſs manufactures, haberdaſhery wares, aſſort linen from Germany and elſewhere, for the American colon receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold a coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favou

nd armies have more than once ſaved her from
s to this country almoſt the ſame kind of mer-
receives in return vaſt quantities of wines, with
uits, dying drugs, and gold coin.
between England and France has been ſo vari-
not eaſy accurately to eſtimate its advantages;
total ſuſpenſion of them has now taken place

rs, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and to-
eturn, laces, linen, cambrics, and other ar-
England loſes upon the balance 250,000l.
ny England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pew-
Eaſt-India merchandiſe; and brings thence
hread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers for
other articles. Before the late war, the ba-
hought to be 500,000l. annually, to the preju-
t ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the
heir intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh
lready mentioned the trade with Denmark,
uſſia, which formerly was againſt England;
y vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements
, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-
hich uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern
orted to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dant-
iſties upon them low. Many articles are ſent
s no longer any demand in other countries.
quantities of our woollen goods, hardware,
c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is
any other country. The balance of trade may
favour.
nds an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of mer-
s of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt-India
, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other
nd makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics,
er, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and
the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in

coaſt of Guinea ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen
braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead, ſhot,
s, gun-powder, and glaſs manufactures. And,
money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the
negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above
other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and
uinea-grains, and ivory.
China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends
and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures
lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from
uſlins and cottons of many various kinds, calli-
ſilk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee,
her drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe va-
exported to foreign European nations, as more
nſates for all the ſilver bullion which England car-

of commerce to foreign parts, it was judged
cluſive charters to particular bodies or corpora-

tions of men; hence the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Ruſſia, Royal African companies; but the Trade to Turkey, Ru Africa, is now laid open; though the merchant who propoſes thither muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to th and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the pu ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

The balance of trade in favour of England has been eſtimate years ago, at three millions ſterling. The increaſe of the com this country will clearly appear from a comparative ſtatement of ports and exports at different periods; the value of which, inclu reign merchandize and manufactures, in the years undermentio as follows:

| | Imports. | | Exports. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1772, | 14,500,000l. | ..... | 17,719,000l. |
| 1783, | 13,325,000l. | ..... | 14,741,000l. |
| 1792, | 19,629,000l. | ..... | 24,878,000l. |
| 1797, | 21,450,000l. | ..... | 28,325,000l. |

As the quantity of circulating ſpecie may in ſome meaſure indi extent of commerce, we may judge of the increaſe of the latter b paring the ſums which the three laſt monarchs found it neceſſary By George I. 8,725,921l. ſterling, were coined. In the lon (thirty-three years) of George II. 11,966,576l. ſterling; and in twenty-four years of his preſent majeſty's reign the ſums coined a to 33,089,274l. ſterling.

The inland trade is far more conſiderable, being valued at of 42,000,000l. ſterling. The coaſting trade is ſaid to give ment to about 100,000 people. The oyſter fiſhery employs 10,000.

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular deta places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead; and woollen m tures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhir cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and h lace-manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, cop lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockin caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 veſſels of all ſizes, as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very ant manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs one alon pying fifteen large houſes; its braſs-wire manufactures are a conſiderable. Extenſive manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, je clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in and its neighbourhood: the gold and ſilver manufactures of through the encouragement given them by the court and the already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Colcheſter is famous for its manufacture of baiſe and ſerges ter for ſerges and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent camlets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no tion, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in Engla carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardw nufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco-boxes, buttons, ſhoe- etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is be in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius

ſeen: for ſuch are their excellent inventions
at they can afford them for a fourth part of
ons can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind:
neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation,
o this. One company of iron manufacturers
60 tons of coals in their iron works. In
very year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron,
of bar-iron.

England carry on a prodigious trade in the
n manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax,
hmond; and, above all, Mancheſter, which,
ottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like
populous place, though only a village, and its
. Beautiful porcelain and earthen ware have
ured in different places of England, particu-
Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially
and Kidderminſter, though but a late manu-
uty any imported from Turkey, and are ex-
quently are a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper,
imported in vaſt quantities from France and
ery corner of the kingdom.

has given encouragement for reviving the
which was firſt attempted in England by ſir
ropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt-India

d on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and
England, are fluctuating; they will always
iving is cheap and taxes are eaſy: for this
erved of late to remove towards the northern
are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add
few years, the inland navigations, which are
ngland, will make great improvements as to its

CKS, *or* PUBLIC FUNDS *in* ENGLAND, *with an*
*of the* EAST-INDIA, *the* BANK, *and the* SOUTH-

dea of the money-tranſactions of the ſeveral
e ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general,
-money, and the difference between that and
y is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſ-
s of life; and paper-money is the repreſent-
ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to
f gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary
e of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but
or company who delivers it; which credit
g ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever re-
the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of
ame value as the current coin, as they may be
the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are
terfeiting them is puniſhed with death as well

ing money in the Bank and exchanging it for

profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole fu
be found to be 1,703,102l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this c
was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by ſir Joſiah Child, and ot
advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwar
II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained
with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in th
of Hindoſtan, damped the ardour of the people to ſupport it; ſo
the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France
in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owi
having no parliamentary ſanction; in conſequence of which,
often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was
that a new company ſhould be erected under the authority o
ment.

The oppoſition given to all the public-ſpirited meaſures
William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of conſ
difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary inquiries, t
ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing t
lions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament
favour. The old company, however, retained a great intereſt
the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome
defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aro
in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite.
year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was
to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without a
tional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained
longation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was gra
them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants tra
the Eaſt-Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from t
time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730; by
though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three
yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,19
was reduced to 3 per cent. and called the India 3 per cent.
ities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the co
the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity
according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſin
the company's trade: and that dividend riſes or falls according
circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often th
pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 1000l. whethe
or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and
a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualifi
for a director. The directors are twenty-four in number, includi
chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn
year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of
year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or courts o
tors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly o
being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of direct
choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of
branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpon
a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of ware
a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committ
law-ſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private-t
who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and ware
keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed t

are miles, and thirty millions of people, muſt
a proportionable increaſe of trade*; and this,
ong its managers both at home and abroad,
the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction
on their dividends for a certain time. From
ee in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian
India company, from the year 1708 to the year
y-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of
0,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of
bove eight and a half per cent. and that at the
ppeared, that, beſides the above dividend, the
ny had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable
the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt-India
in 1773, intituled, "An act for eſtabliſhing
for the future management of the affairs of
, as well in India as in Europe." It was
ourt of directors ſhould, in future, be elected
s annually; but none to hold their ſeats longer
perſons ſhould vote at the election of the di-
ſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the
d, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been,
or's court of Calcutta ſhould, for the future,
cantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction
ial acquiſition. That, in lieu of this court,
ne be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice
and that theſe judges be appointed by the
be given to the preſidency of Bengal, over
dia. That the right of nominating the go-
gal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſa-
alſo fixed at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and
other three. The appointments of the go-
were fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four
ually.

ber, 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate,
ew regulating the company, under the ſuppo-
f the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate

mons; but an oppoſition was made to it in
g too dangerous a power in the hands of any
ure to operate againſt the neceſſary power of
debates, it was thrown out by a majority of
quence of this was a change of the miniſtry,
he cabinet.

ſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions, 1784, three

power of controul in this kingdom, by which
India is to be connected with that over the

the Houſe of Commons, the company employed 110

carrying cargoes to and } 70 ſhips and 7120 men.
- - - - }
6 packets - 320
n China - - 24 crabs - 720

Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons wh nevertheleſs continue in the practice of crimes which have brou grace upon the country.

Accordingly, ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as c ſioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the ſecretaries o and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, ſhall be tw the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New c ſioners to be appointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This boa ſuperintend, direct, and controul all acts, operations, and co which in any wiſe relate to the civil and military government o nues of the Britiſh territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies. T ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them, favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board nutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves, and of the courts of etors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions, propoſe ſent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be ſe after ſuch previous communication, on any pretence whatſoever directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad; but the kin power, by his ſecretary of ſtate, to recall either of the gove members of the councils, or any perſon holding any office un company in their ſettlements, and make void their appointme this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal troul over the other preſidencies, in all points which relate to an actions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the app of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubje the abſolute direction of the company at home, and, in all caſes, thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting orders received from hence.

Soon after the paſſing of this act, Mr. Dundas, who had lo unwearied application to the affairs of India, being placed at of the board of controul, introduced the laudable practice of annually before a committee of the houſe of commons a ſtatemen financial concerns of the company abroad, exhibiting the balan the compariſon of the revenues and charges of the ſeveral ſet As the company's right to their excluſive trade was, by an act 1781, to terminate in March 1794, it became neceſſary to ma ſion for that event: which was effectually done by Mr. Dun propoſed the 25th of February 1793, which, meeting the app of parliament, had the ſingular good fortune of giving eq ſaction to the public and the company: to the public, becauſe i 400,000l. they were to receive 500,000l. per annum, from nues of India; and to the company, becauſe they were ſtill to their power and privileges, as far as they contributed to promot tereſts of their commerce.

The information which preceded or accompanied this ſalu gave the moſt favourable view of the company's affairs, an great national benefits which have already occurred, and whi be expected in future to flow in ſtill greater abundance, from th trade and territory. The revenues of the countries ceded to t pany, by Tippoo Sultan, were ſtated at 390,000l.; and the fut nues of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in India were eſtimated a

a net ſurplus, after deducting the intereſt on the the civil, military and commercial charges, of um. The annual ſales of India goods in Europe arly 5,000,000l. which exceeds the prime coſt and ; and the net ſurplus on the whole of the revenues aſt-India company, after paying 8 per cent. dividend of 5,000,000l. is eſtimated at 1,239,241l. per

r. Dundas ſtated the total amount of the foreign 2l. and the charges upon them at 6,517,057l. leaving 7,815l. He, at the ſame time, ſtated the amount of of the company at home at 7,316,916l.

ND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated he 5th and 6th years of king William and queen of the Governors and Company of the Bank of Eng- of the loan of 1,200,000l. granted to the govern- he ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this ny are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs nt; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in de, in any goods or merchandiſe; but they may deal in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and

ament paſſed in the 8th and 9th years of William III. ed to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171l. 10s. ſted, that Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal and not a contract, either in word or writing, for buying or ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books n ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen ould be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to coun- ſeal of the Bank, or any ſealed Bank-bill, or any Bank- eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were nent their capital to 4,402,343l. and they then ad- nore to the government; and in 1714, they advanced 00,000l.

ir of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their duced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver quer bills as amounted to 2,000,000l. and to accept an 0l.; and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call ers, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital of money as in a general court ſhould be found member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ne time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank e dividend of ſuch a member, and to apply it toward oney in queſtion, but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the lter, and to charge him with the intereſt of 5 per cent. e money ſo omitted to be paid; and if the principal and three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have nuch of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would

Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000l. lent to the 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities wards redeemed by the government, and the national

debt, due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000l. But in 1742, the pany engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000l. at cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that th vernment was now indebted to the company 3,200,000l. the on carrying 4 and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800 to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licen ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu t to accept an annuity of 39,442l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000 into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the mal land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that poſe; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to ment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which, as well a of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cen the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation; the natu which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be tle more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient t ſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they emplo what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in counting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in go ment ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above tioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of ney than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and traordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their rent caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were oblig furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they emp in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſ anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The m which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a m of money, wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 1 cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which the Bank pays the ſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſh be made upon them for the whole or any part thereof, the Bank ther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſum, till they repay it; which they are under an obligation to do a end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of ing a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no c made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the of 23,500l. per annum by the contract: as will appear by the follo account:

| | |
|---|---|
| the government for the advance of | £.30,000 |
| ſubſcribers who advance 100,000l. hen called for) 900,000l. more | 6,500 |
| nk therefore is - - - | £.23,500 |

e caſe, provided the company ſhould make no hich they will be very unwilling to do, be- en their profit, but affect the public credit in

roperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with n foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills es which, they are allowed by the government nually, for the management of the annuities which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock s not equal in value to the Eaſt-India ſtock. nds of the profits half-yearly, of which no- thoſe who have occaſion for their money may ate perſons, if they judge convenient, are per- nds, and to have their intereſt added to the

brief account of ſome recent events of conſi- hiſtory of this great company. In the be- a ſcarcity of ſpecie prevailing, and an alarm e reports of an invaſion, the run became ſo the north, that they were unable to make d to draw largely on the Bank, which, hav- ſums to government for foreign loans and drain of its ſpecie ſo great as to be com- relling neceſſity of the caſe to the miniſter. ncil was in conſequence iſſued, prohibiting ecie, either notes or dividends; and a bill nt to ſanction this order, and extend the pro- e following; after which, it was ſtill further er the next ſeſſion of parliament; and in that nonth after the termination of the preſent war. owed to reſume its payments in caſh at any in- municating its intention to the ſpeaker of the iving one month's notice. To facilitate com- notes of one and two pounds were iſſued, and the Bank, were made current at 4s. 9d. But value, and the price of ſilver ſoon after falling, eit ſtamps appeared, that it was judged ad- ; which was done, the Bank advertiſing, the , that they would give caſh for them till the t no longer. After the firſt week, as it was e loſs muſt be ſuſtained by the lower and mid- erfeit ſtamps were refuſed, the Bank, much to ceive all that were not baſe ſilver.

prohibition of payment, a ſecret committee ns was appointed to examine the ſtate of the

1743, when it was advanced to 5.
oſed to have now twelve millions of circulating paper.

whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame fun allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-S pany: that the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividend be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what pany might reaſonably divide without incurring any further de vided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more th cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and the S company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrance company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, w city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party maki transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfe be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now re 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-g deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor ha own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-gov to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2 the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having, own name and right, 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 200 votes; if 3000l. three votes; and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt-India company, the Bank of England, and the So company, are the only corporated bodies to which the govern indebted, except the million bank, whoſe capital is only one conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long Exchequer orders

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government w years ſince reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuitie year 1758, the life-annuities and the exchequer orders; but th Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their pre pital ſtock, which they are enabled to do from the profits they the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by prietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuatin and below *par*; ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, who ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 or 134½, South-S 97½, &c. he is to underſtand that 100l. of thoſe reſpective ſtock ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with ano muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the tim laſt payment is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as tereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; f

tereſt due on them more than others, which
conſiderable difference in the price, when in
; thus, for inſtance, Old South-Sea annuities
while New South-Sea annuities fetch only
each of them produces the annual ſum of 3
nuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on
ies, which amounts to 15s. the exact differ-
, one or two cauſes that will always make
ell ſomewhat lower than another, though of
of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall
ing, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all
them, as into others where the quantity is
prehended that whenever the government
, they will begin with that particular ſpecies
which is the ſmalleſt.

id intereſt for money advanced, are regularly
nſured by both prince and people (a ſecurity
ions), foreigners will lend us their property,
ted in our welfare; the paper of the compa-
o money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain
carry her ſchemes into execution. In other
on the word of the prince, if a monarchy;
a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the
d people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity.

Laws.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitu-
eems to think, that, however beautiful it may
ound impracticable in the execution. Expe-
be a miſtake; for, by contrivances unknown
conſtitution has exiſted for above 500 years.
be admitted, that it has received, during that
, and ſome interruptions; but its principles
deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian,
rmans, and the other northern anceſtors of
which are very improperly blended under
n the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons,
y and the neighbouring countries, their laws
much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus.
in time of war. The conquered lands, in
of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve
mong them; and the whole was conſidered as
hich they were to unite in defending againſt
enturers coming over under ſeparate leaders,
driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders at laſt
over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered.
on made them more reſpectable among the
bours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe
ons of which continued to be confined to mili-

propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief of-
l, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers
ed we owe that maſter-piece of judicial policy,
nd into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſub-
o tithings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England;
en to direct them for the good of the whole.
e of all civil and criminal matters within the

county; and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, t
the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itin
other judges were appointed; but, by the earlieſt records,
that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, livi
neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here
the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they w
among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being a
biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator an
Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe natio
adopted the feudal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy;
all of them, a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true,
peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual ment
of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that no
invention.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not wh
Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are ce
there was no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated fo
ney*. A mulct was impoſed, in proportion to the guilt, even
murder of the king, upon the malefactor; and by paying it,
chaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ce
after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of
murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, he
though, in fact, it came to be rendered ſo through the affecti
the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſervi
gularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not h
reditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman.

In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line after
all they could to efface from the minds of the people the rem
of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpo
nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt th
and, after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of E
berties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was fo
a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſo
III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear
this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the
of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great cou
nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves th
of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was form
known: but we are certain there was one in the reign of E
though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecif
We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION, a
at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which
of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſti
theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commo

OF THE KING.) The ſupreme executive power of Great Br
Ireland is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king
for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the p
titled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intruſte
the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of ſuc

* Called by the Saxons GUELT; and thence the word *guilty*, in criminal

s depends, is, "that the crown, by com-
uſtom, is hereditary, and this in a man-
at the right of inheritance may, from time
ited, by act of parliament: under which
ntinues hereditary."
more clearly into the deduction of the ſol-
being transferred from the houſe of Tudor
roper to inform him, that, on the death of
ſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the
er Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his
ter Margaret, having married James IV.
s the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the
nt from that alliance. So that in his per-
VIII. centred all the claims of the different
nan invaſion downward: he being indiſ-
illiam I. And, what is ſtill more remark-
ed the right of the Saxon monarchs, which
e Norman invaſion till his acceſſion. For
r Atheling, the daughter of Edward the
of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon
ht of the Saxon kings (ſuppoſing it not
efided. She married Malcolm III. king
by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter,
rer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be re-
by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as
l family of Scotland, from that time down-
Malcolm and Margaret. Of that royal fa-
ireſt and lineal deſcendant; and therefore
offible claim, by hereditary right, to the
rone, being the heir both of Egbert and

, the convention of eſtates, or repreſenta-
lared that the miſconduct of king James II.
of the government, and that the throne

cancy, and from a regard to the ancient
ted the next proteſtant heirs of the blood-
ll the vacant throne, in the old order of
ry exception, or preference to the perſon

of the proteſtant line of king Charles I.
again have become vacant) the king and
lement of the crown to the proteſtant line
princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs
ts; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from
n muſt deſcend *,
iple, upon which the Revolution proceeded,
litics, which had never before happened in
f the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of
not a defeaſance of the right of ſucceſſion
rown, by the king and both houſes of parlia-
tion alone, upon a conviction that there was

* wos, ſince the time that this country became united
ol. of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the

no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and comm
in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both hou
to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to
the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original con
tween king and people; and, by the advice of Jeſuits and other
perſons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having wi

Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name Angle-land to this part of the iſland; the
the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancie
whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

| Began to reign. | | |
|---|---|---|
| 800 | Egbert | Saxon Princes. |
| 838 | Ethelwulf | |
| 857 | Ethelbald | |
| 860 | Ethelbert | |
| 866 | Ethelred | |
| 872 | Alfred the Great | |
| 901 | Edward the Elder | |
| 925 | Athelſtan | |
| 941 | Edmund | |
| 946 | Edred | |
| 955 | Edwy | |
| 959 | Edgar | |
| 975 | Edward the Martyr | |
| 978 | Ethelred II. | |
| 1016 | Edmund II. or Ironſide | |
| 1017 | Canute king of Denmark | Daniſh. |
| 1035 | Harold | |
| 1039 | Hardicanute | |
| 1041 | Edward the Confeſſor | Saxon. |
| 1065 | Harold | |
| 1066 | William I. | (Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French mona |
| 1087 | William II. | Sons of the Conqueror. |
| 1100 | Henry I. | |
| 1035 | Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela. | |
| 1154 | Henry II. | (Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empr and her ſecond huſband, Geoffrey Plantagenet. |
| 1189 | Richard I. | ſons of Henry II. |
| 1199 | John | |
| 1216 | Henry III. ſon of John. | |
| 1272 | Edward I. ſon of Henry III. | |
| 1307 | Edward II. ſon of Edward I. | |
| 1327 | Edward III. ſon of Edward II. | |
| 1377 | Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon the Black Prince. | |
| 1399 | Henry IV. | ſon to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſt |
| 1413 | Henry V. ſon to Henry IV. | |
| 1422 | Henry VI. ſon to Henry V. | |
| 1461 | Edward IV. deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his third ſon. | Houſe of |
| 1483 | Edward V. ſon of Edward IV. | |
| 1483 | Richard III. brother to Edward IV. | |
| 1485 | Henry VII. | (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter. — Houſe of Tudor, in wh united the houſes of and York, by Henry V riage with Elizabeth, da Edward IV. |
| 1509 | Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII. | |
| 1547 | Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII. | |
| 1553 | Mary | Daughters of Henry VIII. |
| 1558 | Elizabeth | |
| 1603 | James I. | Great grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England. |
| 1625 | Charles I. ſon of James I. | |
| | Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell. | |
| 1649 | Charles II. | ſons of Charles I. |
| 1685 | James II. | |

m, has abdicated the government; and that
int." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden
, the old line of ſucceſſion, which, from the
ed above 600 years, and from the union of
ng Egbert, almoſt 900.

he revolution was not ſo perfect as might have
ence a new æra commenced, in which the
iberty have been better defined, the principles
ghly examined and underſtood, and the rights
tly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any
hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy obſerva-
in this their judgment, avoided with great
which the viſionary theory of ſome zealous
them. They held that this miſconduct of
n endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and
r total diſſolution of the government. They,
voted it to amount to no more than an abdi-
and a conſequent vacancy of the throne;
was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive
the kingly office to remain, though James
hus the conſtitution was kept entire; which,
e of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen
and conſtituent a part as the royal autho-
n ſuſpended.

t, that the title to the crown is at preſent he-
ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and
eſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be de-
Formerly the common ſtock was king Eg-
Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time,
ited, and ſo continued till the vacancy of
t is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inhe-
ew king and parliament. Formerly the de-
e crown went to the next heir without any
the new ſettlement the inheritance is con-
ſuch heirs only of the body of the princeſs
embers of the church of England, and are
tants.

conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the

l ſon-in-law of James II.
f James II. in whom ended the proteſtant line of
For James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried
his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was
by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the
ſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James,
e of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles
eded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the
latine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left
r, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſ-
enburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover,
ded the throne, by act of parliament expreſsly made in
his mother.

} Houſe of Hanover.

rge II.

right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdom
treines between which it ſteers have been thought each of
deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed a
on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is
the people, and may, by the expreſs proviſion of the laws,
(if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the p
liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; b
tice will be ever found extremely difficult and dangerou
other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when coup
doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is ſurely, of all co
the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch
tary right as our laws have created and veſted in the roy
cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties which are equally
ance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution, in
moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and,
babiliry, in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtituti
duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defe

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath
ronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops
of the realm, in the preſence of all the people, who, on the
reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. Th
tion oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay*, Will you ſolemnly pr
ſwear to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and
nions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in
agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The a
ſhall ſay*, I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you, to your power, cauſe law
in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or qu*

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop*. Will you to the utmoſt of your powe
the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the
reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you pre
the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches
to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the
ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen*
I promiſe to do.

"*After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the*
*ſhall ſay*, The things which I have here before promiſed,
form and keep: ſo help me God. *And then kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcri
laws: and we may obſerve, that, in the king's part in this or
tract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to
viz. to govern acccording to law; to execute judgment in mer
maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latt
three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act o
Anne, c. 8, two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirme
of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliame
land; which enact, the former, that every king at his acc
take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the proteſtant rel
preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, t
coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to p
ſettlement of the church of England within England, Irela
and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations
er of the crown, already mentioned, is the greateſt monarch

erſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which
och as to imagine or intend his death; neither
med guilty of any crime; the law taking no
but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if
the land. As to his power, it is very great.
to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient
preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make
ny new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of
ake war or peace; ſend and receive embaſſa-
ague and commerce: levy armies, and fit out
f his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies,
llions; grant commiſſions to his officers, both
e them at pleaſure: diſpoſe of all magazines,
parliament to meet, and when met, adjourn,
t pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though
; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has
had never been moved; but this is a preroga-
ngland have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe.
choſing his own council; of nominating all
, of the houſehold, and the church; and, in
onour, from whom all degrees of nobility and
. Such is the dignity and power of a king of

r.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome
fore obſerved, of as high antiquity as the Saxon
d, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Black-
mmentaries, ſays, "It is generally agreed, that
tion of parliament, as it now ſtands, was mark-
e 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great
t prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all
bots, lords, and greater barons, perſonally; and
f under the crown, by the ſheriffs and bailiffs,
ce, with forty days' notice, to aſſeſs aids and
. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact,
1266, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant
mmon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to par-

embled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt
e three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king
l political capacity, and the three eſtates of the
al, the lords temporal, who ſit together with
, and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in
d theſe three eſtates, together, form the great
litic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid
*t finis*. For, upon their coming together, the
er in perſon, or by repreſentation; without
beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has
olving them.
, for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution,
er ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of
rown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the
; but it may approve or diſapprove of the altera-
nſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative
dge the executive power of any rights which it
ut its own conſent; ſince the law muſt perpetu-

ally ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter
And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh gov
ment, were it maintained in its purity, that all the parts of it ſer
mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people a
check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the peo
by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolv
while the king is a check upon both; which preſerves the execu
power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four
ſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, th
ſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of pa
ment. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers;
by creation, as do all the new-made ones; others, ſince the u
with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers
repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers i
definite, and may be increaſed at will, by the power of the crown

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed
compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both
crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withſtand the inc
ments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of di
which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyr
from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes.
nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among
people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and if that
they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when i
laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy,
alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the k
dom as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of whom
voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentative
a free ſtate, every man who is ſuppoſed a free agent ought to
ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt
legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people.
large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived that the people
do that by their repreſentatives which it is impracticable to perf
perſon,—repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſe
diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtingu
The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by th
prietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citize
burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading int
the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513.

* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed
eſtates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for
of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. B
are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members t
ment; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the in
have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property have, there
repreſentatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentat
been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh con
The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years has alſo been viewe
ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before th
"I do ſwear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do
affirm) I have not received or had, by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in tru
or for my uſe and benefit, directly, or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, off
or employment, gift, or reward, or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money,
employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election; and that I
'ore been polled at this election. So help me God!"

every member, though chosen by one par-
d and returned, serves for the whole realm.
thither is not particular, but general; not
uents, but also the commonwealth, and to
ars from the writ of summons.
t parts of parliament, the king, the lords
d the commons; parts, of which each is so
of all three is required to make any new
ject. Whatever is enacted for law by one,
e, is no statute; and to it no regard is due,
o their own privileges.
on of parliament, says sir Edward Coke, is so
that it cannot be confined, either for causes
nds. It hath sovereign and uncontroulable
ming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, re-
pounding of laws, concerning matters of all
lesiastical or temporal, civil, military, mari-
ing the place where that absolute despotic
governments reside somewhere, is intrusted
kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances,
that transcend the ordinary course of the
of this extraordinary tribunal. It can re-
succession to the crown; as was done in the
William III. It can alter and establish the
is done in a variety of instances in the reigns
ee children, Edward VI. Mary, and Eliza-
create afresh even the constitution of the
nts themselves; as was done by the acts of
tes for triennial and septennial elections. It
ing that is not naturally impossible; and
rupled to call its power, by a figure rather
*parliament*. But then its power, however
ust, and therefore ought to be employed ac-
tice, and for the promotion of the general
d it is a matter most essential to the liberties
members be delegated to this important trust
ir probity, their fortitude, and their know-
apophthegm of the great lord-treasurer Bur-
ld never be ruined but by a parliament;"
observes, this being the highest and greatest
er can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if
nent should any way fall upon it, the sub-
eft without all manner of legal remedy.
nischiefs that might arise by placing this ex-
that are either incapable or else improper to
that no one shall sit or vote in either house of
wenty-one years of age. To prevent inno-
vernment, it is enacted that no member shall
till he hath, in the presence of the house,
ance, supremacy, and abjuration, and sub-
eclaration against transubstantiation, the in-
sacrifice of the mass. To prevent dangers
dom from foreign attachments, connections
ed, that no alien, born out of the dominions,

of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalised, capable of being a member of either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of eit are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and t and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared b tute of 1. W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the peop the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliame not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of par And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the kin son by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening new parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servan and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal viole also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the court To assault by violence a member of either house, or his m vants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be and taken into custody, nor served with any process of the law; nor can his menial servants be arrested; nor can any made on his lands; nor can his goods be distrained or seised, a breach of the privilege of parliament*.

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consi are, by the judges of the courts of king's bench and comm and such of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degr coif, or have been made serjeants at law, as likewise by the m the court of chancery for their advice in points of law, and greater dignity of their proceedings.

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chan lord keeper of the great seal; which dignities are commonly the same person.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his ow sentative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons of such which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasio ever, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the of the House, and have therefore been expunged from their j but this has always been thought a violent measure.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand Great Britain, impowered to inquire into all national grievanc der to see them redressed. The peculiar laws and customs of of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes—it cient indisputable privilege and right of the house of common grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their h are first bestowed by them; although their grants are not effec intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two of the legislature. The general reason given for this excl vilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies are raised body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alo have the right of taxing themselves: and so reasonably jealo commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the ot to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permi

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts was always considered b as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished th by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houses may now be sue btors.

o be made by the lords in the mode of tax-
y-bill. Under this appellation are included
s directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for
pe whatſoever, either for the exigencies of
d from the kingdom in general, as the land-
, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as
or in any other manner.
laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each
rity binds the whole; and this majority is de-
and openly given; not as at Venice, and
emblies, privately or by ballot. This latter
le, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional
npoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in
where every member's conduct is ſubject to
conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly
ion.
houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it
firſt neceſſary to preſer a petition, which muſt
, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired
tition (when founded on facts that may be in
referred to a committee of members, who ex-
and accordingly report it to the houſe; and
the mere petition) leave is given to bring in
rs the bill is brought in upon motion made
petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill
of private nature, referred to two of the
ort the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that
nt, and to ſettle all points of technical pro-
irſt time; and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſe-
h reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the
puts the queſtion whether it ſhall proceed any
n of the bill may be originally oppoſed as
er of the readings; and if the oppoſition ſuc-
pt for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed
ſubſequent ſtages.
g, it is committed; that is, referred to a com-
lected by the houſe, in matters of ſmall im-
ll is a matter of great or national conſequence,
nto a committee of the whole houſe. A com-
e is compoſed of every member; and, to form
chair (another member being appointed chair-
bate as a private member. In theſe commit-
lauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks
he bill is entirely new-modelled. After it has
tee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with
committee have made: and then the houſe re-
gain, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon
nent. When the houſe have agreed or diſ-
s of the committee, and ſometimes added new
, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or
hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment
this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and
nes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be
ing a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill,
The ſpeaker then again opens the contents, and

holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion whether the bill
If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this it
to the lords for their concurrence, by one of the members,
tended by ſeveral more, preſents it at the bar of the houſe of
there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his
to receive it. It there paſſes through the ſame forms as in
houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and, if re
more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent un
altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſag
maſters in chancery (or ſometimes, in matters of high import
two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and th
mains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it.
any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down
bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the com
agree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows betwe
bers deputed from each houſe, who, for the moſt part, ſettle a
the difference; but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is
If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent bac
lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint the
with. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when
begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or p
paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only
of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. A
both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in t
of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a mo
which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent bac
houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the
that, both in the houſes and in their committees, the ſlighteſt ex
or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs till the ſpeaker or th
man puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is a
by *aye* or *no*; and in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form.
the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in t
of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and atte
his great officers of ſtate, and heralds. A ſeat on the right han
throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, f
ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of th
ſit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor on a cloſe b
moved a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons,
face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red
baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe, to the bar on t
hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. Th
cellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs, betw
barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe
on wool is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple comm
the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear
parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, ex
the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he
before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways; 1. In perſon. W
king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the
carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering
he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom
extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his
w neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon

Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre.
have paſſed both houſes are read; and the
by the clerk of the parliament in Norman
ts to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares,
lls it ſo to be:" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait*
s it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent,
of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon
s paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the
houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is
*cie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte leur benevolence, et*
anks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevo-
be." In caſe of an act of grace, which ori-
crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt
parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of
*neurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſem-*
*es ſubjects, remercient très humblement votre ma-*
*donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*: "the pre-
in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the
jects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and
in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the
21, the king may give his aſſent by letters
, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his
embled together in the high houſe, by cer-
tain peers named in the letters. And, when
oyal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then,
r act of parliament.
laced among the records of the kingdom;
promulgation to give it the force of a law,
vil law with regard to the emperor's edicts;
ngland is, in judgment of law, party to the
ament, being preſent thereat by his repreſen-
thereof are uſually printed at the king's
of the whole land.
l view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears
manency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is
bjected that parliaments may become ſo cor-
etray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is,
other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over
a private perſon does over his natural life. If
n that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil
can guard againſt. But there are great re-
gland; and though the conſtitution has been
netimes dangerouſly wounded, yet its own
ered and ſtill preſerve it.
beſides his high court of parliament, has ſub-
iſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for
. They are made by the king's nomination,
grant; and, on taking the requiſite oaths, they
vy-counſellors during the life of the king
bject to removal at his pleaſure.
unſellor appears from the oath of office, which
1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of
n. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour, and good
artiality through affection, love, need, doubt,
king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption

in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commi
diately iſſuing from that board; and the members muſt ſig
death-warrants for execution: but it may be eaſily conceiv
they are removable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can cl
prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the
they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty re
whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers,
them when named: ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive.
miſſioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal
lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nat
court is held in London; and all its proceſſes and proceedi
the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners,
that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a do
civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method o
law: but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and ot
offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined accord
laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the
Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is th
equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament,
ſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt,
oppreſſions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord
cellor ſits as ſole judge, and, in his abſence, the maſter of
The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; th
being examined in private: however, the decrees of this cour
binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they
fect their lands and goods; and, conſequently, if a man
comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſe
the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if
ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can,
reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court;
deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord cha
often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs. Through his h
all writs for ſummoning the parliament or chooſing of mem
miſſions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of Engl
times ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determ
common law between the king and his ſubjects are here trie
ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of exchequer.
is, likewiſe, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, the
and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt
is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great ex
juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohi
any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and
of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out h
for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes.
three judges are called juſtices or judges, of the King's Benc

The court of Common Pleas takes cogniſance of all pleas
and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and
ſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and
tions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King
The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the
Pleas, or common bench: beſide whom there are likewiſe th
judges, or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are
to plead here.

was inſtituted for managing the revenues of
of judging both according to law and ac-
roceedings according to law, the lord chief
three other barons, preſide as judges. They
rmerly none but barons of the realm were
court. Beſides theſe, there is a fifth, called
a judicial capacity, but is only employed
ſheriffs and other officers, and alſo to seve-
tom-houſe. But when this court proceeds
he lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the
y the other barons. All matters touching
, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and de-
ers already mentioned, there belong to the
mbrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts
xciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c.
heriffs and their officers; the lord treaſurer's
eſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs,
nd other officers.

ually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually
(except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by
oth miniſterial and judicial. He is to exe-
d all writs directed to him out of the king's
el juries; to bring cauſes and malefactors to
in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and
udges, and guard them all the time they are
iſe to decide the elections of knights of the
ers; to judge of the qualifications of voters,
all determine to be duly elected. It is alſo
l public fines, diſtreſſes, amerciaments, into
e king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch pay-
ajeſty ſhall think proper.

keeps a court called the county court, which
s under-ſheriffs, to hear and determine all
under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no
urt, formerly called the ſheriff's tourn, was
rough all the county: for in this court in-
inal offences againſt the common law, where
no reſtraint. This court, however, has been
he keeper of the king's peace, both by com-
iſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and
bleman therein, during his office. He may
his county to attend him, which is called
r of the county.

rious officers, as the under-ſheriffs, clerks,
s (in London called ſerjeants), conſtables,

heriff is the *juſtice of peace*, ſeveral of whom
county: and to them is intruſted the power
e ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the
nts, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation
they examine and commit to priſon all who

n by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome
y hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſt-
ath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex

break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the co when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inqui caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill, guilt dictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitte called the quarter ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity not without ſome knowledge of the law: for otherwiſe h mit miſtakes, or abuſe his authority; for which, however nable to the court of King's Bench.

Each county countains two *coroners*, who are to inquire, neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another bra office is to inquire concerning ſhipwreck, and certify wh or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his minif he is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall indepen of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; w ſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their c higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capi mitted to the judge of the aſſize. The government of citie cording to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitut are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judica the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and c own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making by their own government. Some have thought the governme by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome liſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much afte manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the p their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſ ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings, and Hythe, to which Win Rye have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in ma Theſe cinque ports were endowed with particular privil ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a ce ber of ſhips, at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the fo (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chi vent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the conve alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they ar to their eſtates on deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the p the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high-conſtable pariſh in that hundred a conſtable, and they are to attend conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by anot

n, who formerly superintended the tenth part
burghs, as they were called in the time of
urgh consisting of ten families. The busi-
the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots.
ll they are brought before a justice of peace;
, within his district, every warrant that is di-
istrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect
th for the preservation of the peace, and the
l debts, has been regretted by many eminent
een found necessary to revive some of them,
imilar nature.
ourts of conscience in many parts of Eng-
oor, in the recovery of payment of small
shillings.
ver was, any constitution provided with so
gland is, for the security of personal li-
oned has a right to bring a writ before a
called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge,
of commitment, shall find that the offence
mediately admitted to bail, till he is con-
roper court of justice.
ls are so attentively guarded, that the subject
er, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his
rity: he may do this in open court, where
be obliged to pay damages to his subject.
y the liberty of the meanest individual, un-
act of which he is accused or suspected upon
o liberty; or except when the state is in
atives of the people think the public safety
should have the power of confining persons
t; such as the case of a rebellion within the
ture has sometimes thought proper to pass a
e Habeas Corpus act. The king has a right
nor the judges to whom he delegates his
man as a criminal, except he be first found
o must be his peers or his equals. That the
ed by the king or his ministers to misrepresent
ave their salaries for life, and not during the
n. Neither can the king take away or en-
ect, without trial, and the persons being first
crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some
ety; nor can any subject be deprived of his
ne, till some proof of his guilt be given upon
and he has then a right to insist upon his be-
ortunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to
his appearance. If a man is charged with a
ot undergo the ignominy of being tried for
of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of
ich the fact is alleged to be committed, and
agree to a bill of indictment against him. If
a second trial before twelve other men, whose
the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where
rn, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the
ed, for the more impartial trial;—a privilege
o other country in the world, but which is as

ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred*. In ſome caſes, (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient pro guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to aſſiſt him his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their ch and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they a diced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily objec ty of the number†; and to as many more as he can give reaſon not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexce men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the pla the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take th ing oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance ma the king and the priſoner, whom they ſhall have in charge, accor ding dence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſ bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power; by their liv the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the These only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is life or death; and upon their integrity and underſtanding, the all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from the ment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mi after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting demning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore veſted wi lemn and awful truſt; if he without evidence ſubmits his opi that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaiſance to the of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an in character; or, after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſ upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accu will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the cated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhm fiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to them for declaring a man innocent whom he wiſhes to bring in Were not this the caſe juries would be uſeleſs; for far from being themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe pro not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. T might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is ſo capital a privilege, and ſo great a ſecurity liberty of the ſubject, that it is much to be regretted that per education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate p who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their rights a privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. N ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly upon; and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſchargi duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and l which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable inſtit Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt eff check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do no againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws

* Statuta de Monticolis Walliæ.

† The party may challenge thirty-five, in caſe of treaſon.

ſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it
ven by father Paul, in his maxims of the re-
ke effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the
obleman againſt a ſubject," ſays he, "let all
n; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let
er noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that
et him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity,
t too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on
rt, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman
d, act the tyrant, while the judge would have
enied to our kings. But by our happy conſti-
ing but liberty and equity, all imaginary in-
meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a
his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and,
oſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet as he
ating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed
ity and legality of the indictment, and may
ary to law. Nothing is wanted to clear up
d to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under
s, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks
y made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to
f, are here unknown, and none puniſhed
e who refuſes to plead in his own defence.
ors in England is very different from that of
ng account may be uſeful to foreigners and
thoſe proceedings.

nd the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk
is hand, then charges him with the crime of
ſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If
his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not*
on the trial, even though he may before have
law of England takes no notice of ſuch con-
eſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty
t acquit him; for they are directed to bring
to the evidence given in court. If the pri-
t is, if he will not ſay in court whether he
ight till lately, by the law of England, be
ad of iron upon his breaſt; but, at preſent,
on him as in caſe of conviction.

e given in their evidence, and the priſoner
nſel, croſs examined them, the judge recites
the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and
conſcience: when, if the matter be very clear
verdict without going out of the court; and
nd the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not*
be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury,
ebate, they all withdraw into a room with a
here they are locked up till they are unani-
lict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die
ent, the priſoner will be acquitted.

eed on the verdict, they inform the court by
ut, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to
unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes,
t in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined
England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſo
give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him?
now properly no benefit of clergy: it is changed to tranſport
burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the ſentence
after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the
in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place fr
thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, a
ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead; and the Lord have
thy ſoul!* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the executio

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediatel
ted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their in
from the court, to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

Of PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capit
under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in
conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in co
ing the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſled
place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows
minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and e
public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off,
body quartered; after which the head is uſually fixed on ſom
cuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited,
loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobili

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the
is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet
ſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to
ing: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the crimi
ing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe*.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for n
or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of a
fender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

*Petty treaſon* is when a child kills his father, a wife her h
clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. T
is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the
execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Wom
both of this crime and of high treaſon were ſentenced to be bu
but this law has been very lately repealed, and the puniſ
burning aboliſhed.

*Felony* includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, d
Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging: only murderers† are to be
ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeon
to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when th
ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſpo
term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the Amer
they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works
utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years;
ſome have been ſent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany Ba

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

*Manſlaughter*, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon wit
meditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of
of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours a
is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tied
day, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

o each other, quarrel, and the one kills the
ninal is allowed the benefit of his clergy, for
rnt in the hand.
dental killing of a man without an evil intent;
ſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender
t; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſh-

g goods, knowing them to be ſtolen, are pu-
r a number of years, or burning in the hand.
orderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory

eſt, under the value of twelve-pence, is pu-

ights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the mar-
ed with ſtanding on the pillory.
raw blood, in a king's court, the criminal is
ight hand.
ſter-hall while the courts of juſtice are ſitting,
ſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the of-

, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are pu-
ſtocks, or by paying a fine.
E.] The firſt private relation of perſons is
includes the reciprocal rights and duties of
moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron*
the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the
niſhment, therefore, or annulling of inceſtu-
marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.
divorce; the one total, the other partial. The
ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment,
the marriage; as conſanguinity, affinity, or
e iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely

orce is, when the marriage is juſt and lawful,
ender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſuperve-
mproper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live
intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either
ſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except
rliament grants a total divorce, as has happened
, which is that allowance which is made to a
ut of the huſband's eſtate, being ſettled at the
ſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the
e, and the rank and quality of the parties.
uſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſ-
ave ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and in-
our eccleſiaſtical courts a woman may ſue, and
band.
general conſiders man and wife as one perſon,
ces in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered as in-
by his compulſion. And therefore all deeds
by her, during her coverture, are void; except
tter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely
o learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by
uſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for,

at the time of making it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coerci
ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her throu
ſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her; but this extends not
ſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likewiſe by the civil law
give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to anſwer for
behaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to intruſt him with th
of reſtraining her by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame modera
a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children; for whom
ter or parent is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the
reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doub
a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſban
return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower ranks of
who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim an
their ancient privilege: and the courts of law will ſtill permit a
to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbeha

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the co
upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities which
lies under are for the moſt part intended for her protection and
So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenu
ſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the ten
ties of vacant biſhopricks; from which he receives little or no
tage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allow
meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or mo
and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and h
ing one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to
penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a b
Theſe corodies are due of common right, but now, I believe,
3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt fruits and tenths of be
But ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, tha
four branches now afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The d
lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a
compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſidera
the purchaſe of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of pur
and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on w
cences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His
5. His courts of juſtice, &c. In lieu of all which, 900,000l. per
is now granted for the ſupport of his civil liſt.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous
of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies, and are granted, as has been
hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled
when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the
of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a c
tee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of rai
ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee, every member (thou
looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exch
may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detri
to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approv
vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) fi
concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed u
ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no m
man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity o

be advantageous, on the credit of the bare
nons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſta-

The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed
The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on
ry.
1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage
d or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or in-
variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty,
for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp
, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows.
r hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty

ſe annual and permanent taxes, including the
year, amounted in the year 1797, according
Committee of Finance to the following ſums

| | | | | Charges of management. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *L.* | *s.* | *d.* | *L.* | *s.* | *d.* |
| . . | 6,527,882 | 19 | 3¼ . . | 416,627 | 2 | 11¾ |
| al | 12,038,218 | 5 | 9 . . | 535,128 | 1 | 10 |
| . | 2,262,568 | 12 | 8 . . | 100,903 | 13 | 6 |
| . | 3,485,341 | 16 | 10 . . | 150,906 | 1 | 7½ |
| . | 548,333 | 0 | 6½ . . | 33,301 | 4 | 2½ |
| . | 1,109,179 | 1 | 10 . . | 296,279 | 4 | 5½ |
| ns | 36,038 | 14 | 10¼ . . | 578 | 2 | 6 |
| . | 50,538 | 6 | 3 . . | 841 | 14 | 1 |
| : | 26,365 | 13 | 1½ . . | 2,255 | 0 | 11½ |
| : | 8,219 | 9 | 6 . . | 2,915 | 13 | 0 |

eſe taxes, deducting the balances of the pre-
n over entries, drawbacks, bounties in nature
lowances on the cuſtoms, exciſe, ſtamps, and
ommittee, to have amounted, in that year, to
le of the permanent revenue to 20,508,000l.
s are appropriated is next to be conſidered:
ipally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the

and comprehenſive view of the nature of this
irſt be premiſed, that, after the Revolution,
with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of ſo-
s of the nation, not only in ſettling the new
ining long wars, as principals on the conti-
he Dutch barrier, reducing the French mon-
ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria,
f the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, in-
ree; inſomuch that it was not thought advi-
ſes of any one year by taxes to be levied with-
cuſtomed weight of them ſhould create mur-
It was therefore the bad policy of the times
s of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe
ce of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon
ſice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo
converting the principal debt into a new ſpe-
able from one man to another, at any time and
which ſeems to have had its original in the
1344; which government then owed about

60,000l. ſterling; and being unable to pay it, formed the princ
an aggregate ſum, called metaphorically, a mount or bank; t
whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the found
what is called the NATIONAL DEBT; for a few long annuities,
in the reign of Charles II, will hardly deſerve that name; an
ample then ſet has been ſo cloſely followed ſince, that the capit
funded debt, Britiſh and foreign, on the firſt of February 1799, a
to 465,152,531l. and the annual charge of it to 19,552,037l.

Of this funded debt the commiſſioners for buying up the
debt had redeemed, on the firſt of February 1799, 37,381,771
unfunded debt, at the ſame time, amounted to 15,295,674l.

To check, in ſome meaſure, the too rapid accumulation of a
ready ſo enormous, a part of the ſupplies for the years 1798 a
have been raiſed within the year. In 1798, a voluntary ſubſcrip
entered into for the ſervice of government, which produced
million and a half; and the taxes called the aſſeſſed taxes were
and in ſome inſtances quadrupled, with allowance of relief in
caſes: theſe produced about five millions. In the year 1799
paſſed for levying a tenth of all income, upwards of 200l. wi
according to a certain ſcale, on all income from 200l. to 60l.
num. The expected produce of this tax is eſtimated at ten m
but by the returns already made, it ſeems likely to produce lit
than two thirds of that ſum.

The total expenditure of the year 1797, for the intereſt of th
debt, the civil liſt, the army, navy, foreign loans and remittanc
ſions, bounties, extraordinary and ſecret ſervices, &c. amoun
cording to the report of the Select Committee of Finance, to 52,1
18s. 2¼d.; and the total of the ordinary revenue and extra
reſources, including a lottery and a loan of twenty-ſeven mill
55,020,890l. 1s. 0¼d.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our
incumbrances very far exceeds all calculations of commercial be
is productive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the e
taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payme
intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures,
ing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw
and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the co
itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, ei
draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of
the intereſt, or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unre
privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if t
be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and in
ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the inde
idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it
the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſource
ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt
pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any
any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors
William's time had annually paid, ſo long as there exigenci
even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their accou
would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than t
bequeathed to and ſettled upon their poſterity in the time of p
might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before mentioned were orig
parate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advance

n only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order
hey multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of
niting and blending them together, ſuperadding
for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that
ee capital funds of any account: the *aggregate*
o called from ſuch union and addition; and the
he produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the
the national debt as was advanced by that com-
: whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus
tual ſecurities for each other; and the whole
ggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annui-
harged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of
noreover engaged to ſupply any caſual defici-

and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds,
ncies, upon exports, imports, and conſumption,
very uncertain amount: but they have always
than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them.
, of the three great national funds, the aggregate,
funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities
directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7, to be carried
the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually
*-fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſa-
d inviolably to the redemption of the national
n ſince added many other entire duties, granted
nd the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on
is charged on, and payable out of the produce
However, the net ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after
ount, annually, to a very conſiderable ſum. For,
tional debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by
prietors, who had their option either to lower
id their principal), the ſavings from the appro-
needs be extremely large. On this ſinking-fund
ſure, our hopes of diſcharging or moderating our
refore the prudent application of the large ſums
fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and
s attention of parliament.
727 and 1732, ſeveral incroachments were made
; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken
Walpole, under pretence of eaſing the landed in-
f alienating the ſinking fund being thus begun,
1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged; and
niſtration has broken in upon it, thus converting
t for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for the

inking fund has produced from two to three mil-
only 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably ap-
n of the public debts, from the year 1733, in-
llions and a half paid off by it, as is the caſe at
nd ſixty millions would have been paid, and the
icated and ſaved. Different ſchemes have been
public debts: but no method can be ſo expedi-
n unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is im-
*reſt*, and therefore in the moſt perfect manner;
y a loan bears only ſimple intereſt. "A nation

therefore whenever it applies the income of such a fund
expenses rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses t
benefit of compound interest in order to avoid paying simp
and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between th
of money at compound and simple interest*."

No permanent provision has ever been made for the progr
permanent payment of this immense debt until 1786; when p
had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unali
commissioners, the sum of one million annually: in which
possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preve
surplus from being diverted, at any future time, and for carry
account of the commissioners, for the purposes of the act, the
such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary an
should fall in under the provisions of this act. 37,381,771l.
pital of the debt had been purchased in February, 1799.

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the surpluses whereo
of the chief ingredients that form the sinking fund) can be a
diminish the principal of the public debt, it stands mortgage
liament to raise an annual sum for the maintenance of the king
hold and the civil list. For this purpose, in the late reigns
duce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-
duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown-
profit arising from courts of justice (which articles include all
ditary revenue of the crown), and also a clear annuity of 12
money, were settled on the king for life, for the support of his
household, and the honour and dignity of the crown. An
amount of these several branches were uncertain (though in
reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a
if they did not rise annually to 800,000l. the parliament en
make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soo
accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that his own h
revenues might be so disposed of, as might best conduce to th
and satisfaction of the public, and having accepted the limite
800,000l. (now increased to 900,000l.) per annum, for the s
his civil list, the said hereditary and other revenues are no
into and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggrega

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly shows what this difference is:—"One pe
at our Saviour's birth, at 5 per cent. compound-interest, would, in the year
increased to a greater sum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earth
gold; but if put out to simple interest, it at the same time would have amo
more than seven shillings and sixpence. All governments that alienate fun
for reimbursements, choose to improve money in the *last* rather than the *fi*
ways." He adds: "A million borrowed annually, for twenty years, will pay
time, 55 millions 3 per cent. stock, if discharged at 60l. in money for every 1
and in 40 years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 millions) th
millions in all would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrow
million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in
periods.

"In short, so necessary is it at present to expedite, by every possible
redemption of our debts, that, let the surplus which can be obtained for
fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, i
give it greater efficiency, and a better chance of saving the kingdom.—The
taxes, which such a measure must occasion, would be so inconsiderable a
dual, as to be scarcely perceptible; and, at the same time, it would manif
determined resolution in our rulers, to reduce our debts, as might have th
influence on public credit."

of the annuity to the crown. The expenſes
re thoſe that, in any ſhape, relate to civil go-
of the houſehold, all ſalaries to officers of
ery one of the king's ſervants; the appoint-
ors, the maintenance of the queen and royal
expenſes, or privy purſe, and other very nu-
et ſervice money, penſions, and other boun-
nave ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed
lication has been made to parliament to diſ-
d on the civil liſt, which is properly the whole
his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being ra-
ublic or its creditors, though collected and
ame and by the officers of the crown.
itals and intereſt of the different public funds,
n in the following page.

general is liberal and easy: but when drawn out in actua
they are subject to the rigours of martial law, as necessary to k
in order. This is the constitutional security which our laws
vided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm a
reign or domestic violence, and which the statutes declare is
necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But as the mode of keeping standing armies has universally
over all Europe of late years, it has also for many years past beer
judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the king
defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and th
vation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even i
peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the
who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of ev
unless continued by parliament. The land forces of these king
time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops a
sons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the East Indies, and America; but i
war, the number is much greater. The whole of the regular
the year 1798, amounted to 78,627 men; and the militia and f
including 6,911 fencible cavalry, to 62,202 men, making in
gular and irregular force 140,829 men. To govern this
troops, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny
sertion, and for the better payment of the army and their q
This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed
the several innkeepers and victuallers throughout the kingdo
establishes a law-martial for their government.

The MARITIME state is nearly related to the former, thoug
more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The roy
of England has ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it i
cient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; a
from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever b
hended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cul
even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our n
putation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritii
which are called the Laws of Oleron, and are received by all n
Europe as the ground and substruction of all their marine consti
was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the isle of Ol
the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of E
And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point to the
age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, sir
Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of Engla
consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in
measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statute called the
tion act; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and
was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably necessary. T
beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms,
navigation act; the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650
with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the sugar islands,
were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charle
stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the
and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and a
neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from
with any English plantations without licence from the council
In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother countr
no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its
ncies in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of tha

erchandife imported was the genuine growth
eſtoration, the former proviſions were conti-
18. with this very material improvement, that
s of the mariners ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.
nen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted
of war, they formerly amounted to about
e commencement of the American war, to
marines. The vote of parliament for the
nd 1799 was for 120,000 ſeamen, including

divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the
h are ſo termed from the differences of their
has its admiral: but the admiral of the red
command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-
Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-
e command of our naval force is, next to the
oners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our
naritime power, it was not until the vaſt ar-
by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vi-
ly ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural
e ſo happily cultivated.
nat the Britiſh navy is able to cope with all the
The brilliant victories of lords St. Vincent,
the late ſurrender of the whole Dutch fleet,
ſtabliſhed the unrivalled ſuperiority of Britain
ers of Europe. In the courſe of the preſent
er enemies, including the Dutch ſhips ſur-
der, 83 ſhips of the line, 111 frigates, 223 other
vateers, amounting in the whole to 1132 ſhips.
year 1800, the Britiſh naval force conſiſted of
mmiſſion, 22 fifty gun-ſhips, 200 frigates, and
the whole 658 ſhips: and including receiving
d building, 902, of which 224 were of the line.
ount of the military and maritime ſtrength of
eat Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea-of-
ct to a perpetual act of parliament, which an-
act that is paſſed for the government of the
bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in
t in a few inſtances, of no great moment. The
be called upon by a civil magiſtrate to enable
againſt all attempts to break it. The military
e ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions is to take his di-
ute; and both he and they, if their proceedings
fied againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo
trates who underſtand the principles of the con-
remely cautious in calling for the military on
any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with
equent employment of the military power in a
edingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded
aution.
itain, money is computed by pounds, ſhillings,
e making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one
only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces con-
half guineas; the ſilver of crowns, half crowns,
ats, and even down to a ſilver penny; and the

copper, of halfpence and farthings; to which have lately
penny and two-penny pieces. In a country like England, w
trinsic value of silver is nearly equal, and in some coins, c
particularly, superior to the nominal, the coinage of silver
matter of great consequence; and yet the present state of
currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and si
intrinsic value of the latter being in many of them worn d
their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of
and by the public losing the difference between the bullion
and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned,
guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but these a
rally current; nor is any silver coin that is lower than six-p
coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and i
ning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. } The title of the king of En
the Grace of God, of Great Brit
and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The designa
kings of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Hi
Henry VIII. to put himself on a footing with the emperor
assumed that of Majesty; but the old designation was not al
towards the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of
the Faith, above mentioned was given to Henry VIII. by
on account of a book written by the king against Luther a
formation. Besides the titles already given, the king of Gr
has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanov
Brunswick Lunenburg, &c.

Since the accession of the present royal family of Great Br
1714; the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarte
first grand quarter, *Mars, three lions passant guardant, in pale S*
perial ensigns of England, impaled with the royal arms o
which are, *Sol, a lion rampant, within a double tressure flowers*
*ter-flowered with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The second quarter i
arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The thi
signs of Ireland, which is *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna.*
fourth grand quarter is his present majesty's own coat, viz.
*lions passant guardant, Sol,* for Brunswick, impaled with L
which is, *Sol, semee of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter;*
cient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horse current, Luna, enté* (or grafte
*and in a shield sur tout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charle*
whole within a garter, as sovereign of that most noble order
hood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*,
the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to show his indepen
all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward II
laid claim to the crown of France. Almost every king of En
a particular badge or cognisance; sometimes a white hart, so
fetlock with a falcon, by which it is said Edward IV. alluded
fidelity of one of his mistresses: and sometimes a portcullis,
that of the house of Lancaster, many of the princes of which
in the castle of Beaufort. The white rose was the bearing of
of York; and that of Lancaster, by way of contradistinction
the red. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial
belonged to Scotland, and was very significant when joi
motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*, "None shall provoke me unp

The titles of the king's eldest son are, Prince of Wales, duk

Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and
, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Isles, great-
ptain-general of the artillery company.
R, the most honourable of any in the world,
II. January 19, 1344. It consists of the so-
g or queen of England, of 25 companions,
er, who wear a medal of St. George killing
the tutelar saint of England, commonly en-
d from a blue ribband, which was formerly
ut since the latter end of James I. now crosses
nulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet,
led under the left knee, and gives the name
as an ensign of unity and combination; on
ords, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him

o called from their bathing at the time of their
be instituted by Henry IV. about the year
s to be more ancient. For many reigns they
ation of a king or queen, or other solemn oc-
scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder,
, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from
e, and a thistle from the sinister, between three
within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three
der being discontinued, was revived by king
lay, 1725; and the month following, eighteen
commoners of the first rank, were installed
great ceremony, at Westminster, where the
nry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are splendid
ber of knights is undetermined. The Bishop
dean of the order, which has likewise a re-

STLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned
untry; as is also the order of St. Patrick,
nd, in our account of that kingdom.
glish peerage, or nobility, has been already
s and order of dignity, are dukes, marquisses,
s or barons.
be said to belong to an order, having no other
nd in a field argent, in their arms. They are
our under the peerage, and would take place
e Garter, were it not that the latter are always
being no intermediate honour between them
arons of England. They were instituted by
1615. Their numberwas then two hundred,
ol. on pretence of reducing and planting the
land: but at present their number amounts to

ed almost in every nation in Europe, and in ge-
rving on horseback; a rank of no mean esti-
s, and entitling the parties themselves to the
knighthoods formerly took place in England;
, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like;
l. Indeed, in the year 1773, at a review of the
h, the king conferred the honour of Knights
als and three captains. They have no particular

badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a ba
in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the
which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a
knight, and they were therefore called Armigeri. This title
perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear
is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can a
in the character of a gentleman, without trade; and even a
if he is a juſtice of peace demands the appellation. This
late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and confer
king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and
a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower the poet appears, from his ef
tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation.
law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſhold,
the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take pl
eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes,
earls, viſcounts and barons, are in the eye of the law no
eſquires, though commonly deſignated by noble titles. The
of gentleman, though now beſtowed ſo promiſcuouſly, is
all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be
man, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

History.] It is generally agreed that the firſt inhabit
tain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on
ſhore; a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conform
language, manners, government, religion, and complexi

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birt
meditated the conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly
connections with the Gauls, and other people of the contin
vernment, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter w
wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretende
companied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch adva
the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly ap
ever, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæſa
rative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive;
Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, b
knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Brito
time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed in the time of war b
cal confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories la
fordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head
form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar, and the b
they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern cl
have been already mentioned; but they certainly ſowed co
perhaps they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and mil
clothing was ſkins,—and their fortifications beams of wo
were incredibly dexterous in the management of their cha
they fought with lances, darts and ſwords. Women ſometim
armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns in their
diſtricts. They favoured the primogeniture or ſeniority in
ceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconvenien
ing it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave th
or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of a
heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they wer
delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call m
clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and

em all; but her children belonged to the original

during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as
butaries of the Romans; but the communications
Great Britain being then extended, the emperor
t forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, under-
perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful
conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus,
a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans.
a priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to
aunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the
ors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times.
ſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name,
d to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agri-
nitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his
has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland,
ad no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch
ly defended. During the time the Romans remained
ted thoſe walls which have been often mentioned,
from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and
, that the Roman language, learning and cuſtoms,
ritain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for
s more probable that the Romans conſidered Britain
or their armies abroad, on account of the ſuperior
courage of the inhabitants when diſciplined. That
pears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of
government of Rome recalled her forces from that
y taken notice, that, during the abode of the Ro-
introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it
them the South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of
that the genius of liberty retreated northwards,
made a brave reſiſtance againſt theſe tyrants of the
he Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when
Roman legions abroad, yet we know of no ſtruggle
nes, for their independency at home, notwithſtand-
able opportunities that preſented themſelves. The
l generals, while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Bri-
employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledo-
latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Bri-
rd;) but they appear to have had no difficulty in
thority in the ſouthern provinces.

inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, un-
ths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with
l with danger to Rome itſelf*, the Roman legions
of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth,
e capital and centre of the empire; and that they
d with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in
e the wall of Severus between Newcaſtle and Car-
d with forts and watch towers; and having done
e their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448,
affers of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon
Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

s finding the iſland finally deſerted by the Roman

* See the Introduction.

legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacke
wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fu
to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance
injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a
mily deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued b
fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſer
for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe
*Aëtius, thrice conſul: the groans of the Britons*; and, after oth
able complaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſe
ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left
by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given th
Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began
what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gilda
himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countryn
time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of the
and the names of ſome of their kings; particularly one Vorti
of the *Dammonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargai
Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the
Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now
Engliſh Channel; and their native countries, comprehendi
navia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked
bitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons;
relieved by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, a
iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their
try was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands, of Britai
able and alluring, that in a very little time Hengiſt and Horſ
meditate a ſettlement for themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of thei
men arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to t
whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdue
into Wales, where their language and their deſcendants ſtill

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we
little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters;
tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their
poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within the deſign of this work to relate th
hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy
ficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied Eng
about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to k
kings and laity in the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always m
the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Ang
during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monk
they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut the
in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where th
their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo Saxon kings, during
tarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner; and among
Ina king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he
and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings
of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king
impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which
wards known by the name of Peter's-pence, becauſe paid on
day of *St. Peter ad vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt*.

* This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome, for
† Engliſh youth, founded by Ina, king of Weſſex, under the name of *Rome-*
-ſeſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucce

dvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-
comparison of the nations on the continent; be-
om the Saracens or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who
in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and
ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then
erable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon
Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time
, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling in the
erefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this
people of the continent. The venerable but ſu-
t the year 740, compoſed his church hiſtory of
ing in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The
e of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of
can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with
g, was introduced into England; and we read, in
an prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt
t the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper,
gible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes
aws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate
hy in England, when, about the year 800, moſt
tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings,
e government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who
ng branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the
arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the
year 827, he became king of all England.
herwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France,
ny. Egbert had been obliged, by ſtate jealouſies,
arles for protection from the perſecutions of Ead-
a, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt Saxons. Eg-
ourt of Charles, the arts both of war and govern-
on united the Saxon heptarchy in his own per-
ing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom
d or England; but there is reaſon to believe that
continued ſtill to be governed by independent
Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a ſmall tribute
the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.
ed by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power
elſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene
hrough the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions: and
ime bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of de-
ich he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, after-
ed, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The
made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of
ng) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his
how his intellect to have been diſturbed by his
s guided by the arts of Swithin, biſhop of Win-
ith, after his return from Rome, he divided his
o of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead) Ethel-
ut we know of no patrimony that was left to
rt, who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom,
Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the
f Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-
ounties in England. Ethelred being killed, his
d the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt
e and war mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven

battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs; and when d
found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. H
ever, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, h
to live in the diſguiſe of a cow-herd; but ſtill he kept up
reſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected to
by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrow
he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the
had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his governmen
of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he was probal
powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of r
ritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts
invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been
by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about t
he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings;
revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fall
by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at R
not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us, that upon
to the throne, he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read E
eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and
ing into general uſe in palaces as well as churches; though
that his ſubjects, for many years after his death, were fon
buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigatio
incredible to modern times: but he had merchants who tr
India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome
were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time.
from one Other, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of
Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the kin
morial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Nor
far north as commonly the whale-hunters uſed to travel."
numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faith
ful allies in the two Scotch kings, his contemporaries,
Donald, againſt the Danes, he is ſaid to have fought no le
ſix pitched battles. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt ju
he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to e
died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely
heroic, that he is juſtly diſtinguiſhed with the epithet of

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, w
though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invaſions.
the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athe
prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce, as to make
every merchant who made three voyages on his own accou
diterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane* or *n*
firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated in
tongue. He encouraged coinage; and we find by his law
biſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privileg
money. His dominions appear, however, to have been
wards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill k
in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars wi
bours, the Scots in particular, in which he was generally ſu
died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edre
were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in
Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, w
the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of
is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight king

ut, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of
unſtan. His reign, however, was pacific and
iged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the
e was ſucceeded in 975 by his eldeſt ſon Ed-
ſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon
ieſts, mounted the throne in 978. The Engliſh
overrun with barbarians, and the Danes by de-
the fineſt parts of the country, while their
mes dreadful deſcents in the weſtern parts. To
ed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by
*egeld*, and was the firſt land-tax in England.
had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that
general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh; but it
was put into execution. Some attempts of that
made in particular counties; but they ſerved
ſh king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred,
out of England into Normandy, a province of
erned by its own princes, ſtyled the Dukes of
g killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the
urning to England, forced Canute to retire to
he invaded England with a vaſt army, and
e (ſo called for his great bodily ſtrength) Ethel-
h him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being
ceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying
d Harefoot, did nothing memorable; and his
was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh
in England.
ed was now called to the throne; and Edward,
the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Athel-
from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and
eath of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold,
f Kent, mounted the throne of England.
rmandy, though a baſtard, was then in the unri-
great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to
For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring
vn vaſſals, to join him, and made liberal promiſes
s and honours in England, to induce them to aſſiſt
eſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and
Europe; and while Harold was embarraſſed with
n the Danes, William landed in England without
eturning from the north, encountered William at
attle, which took its name from that event, near
a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two
ing killed, the crown of England devolved upon
066.
cular accounts of the value of proviſions and ma-
ys; a palfrey coſt 1s.; an acre of land (according
n his Chronicon. Pretioſum) 1s.; a hide of land,
100s.; but there is great difficulty in forming the
hich thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard
ny ingenious treatiſes have been written on that
mated at 1s., an ox was computed at 6s., a cow at
e board wages of a child the firſt year was 8s. The
were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or
otton were quite unknown. Linen was not much

uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the m
dren of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in tho

With regard to the manners of the Anglo Saxons we can f
but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ig
letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſi
law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and
Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children an
into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military coura
yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the
hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their o
try, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſi
upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the pe
ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad all the rudiments o
and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious
Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, wh
diſcouraged manufactures.

We are however to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy,
regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo
were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The
pended upon the See of Rome, and directed the conſcience of
and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often ſan
A great part of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to th
invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary impro
Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were wel
ſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to
this day the moſt valuable privileges of the Engliſh ſubject.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings i
tain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient
that he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the ad
of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed the
Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with ve
farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſ
alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting la
knights' fees*, which are ſaid to have amounted to 62,000, a
held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted hi
conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knig
their followers in his wars. He gave, for inſtance, to one of hi
the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatin
rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown; and h
cording to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law
land. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of hi
Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, we
tionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords too
and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of
ficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm
Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without ex
horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced th
man laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at L
commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country wi
and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted ever
poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſti

* Four hides of land made one knights' fee; a barony was twelve times gr
that of a knight's fee; and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of gr
amounted to 700.

, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken
.

vey of all the lands in England to be made, or
r it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time),
en of the villains or ſervile tenants, ſlaves, and
te; all which were recorded in a book called
s now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe
rious king was diſturbed, in his old age, by the
Robert, who had been appointed governor of
med the government, as ſovereign of that pro-
avoured by the king of France. And here we
s between England and France; which have
n more noble blood, and been attended with
ements, than any other national quarrel we read
hiſtory. William, ſeeing a war inevitable, en-
ual vigour: and with incredible celerity, tranſ-
h army, invaded France, where he was every
lied before he had finiſhed the war, in the year
r of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in
d in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.
ueſt England not only loſt the true line of her
t alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in
ir country and liberties, or fled to foreign coun-
nd; where, being kindly received by king Mal-
themſelves; and, what is very remarkable, in-
Engliſh, which has been the prevailing lan-
of Scotland to this day.
ngland, by virtue of the conqueſt, became much
ion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much terri-
. For though the Normans, by the conqueſt,
gliſh land and riches, yet England gained the
om of Normandy, which became a province to
likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of
itude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abound-
perpetual intercourſe between England and the
ncreaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure
dom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England, by
kewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the
n before acquired only by the greater naval pow-
Saxon kings. For the dominion of the narrow
belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs
both ſides; and thus the former title was con-
aſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of Eng-
of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel,
ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we have con-
naintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the
r navy to any other power.
e crown of England was diſputed between the
rt and William (commonly called Rufus, from his
d was carried in favour of the latter. He was a
nce, but no friend to the clergy, who have there-
e to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the
his elder brother; and, conſequently, he was en-
wars with his brothers and rebellious ſubjects.
cruſades of the Holy Land began; and Robert,

who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matter liam for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling an of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had re that quarter; but was accidentally killed, as he was hunti Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fo his age.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall, as it now ſtands, an veral works to the tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, w flowed great part of earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and f ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin-Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother, Henry I. ſurnamed Be account of his learning, though his brother Robert was the from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed firſt, by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Winchefte by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the right leges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. Hi great meaſure, reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſta formed, as it were, a ſeparate body, dependent upon the pop terwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his bert's perſon; and duchy of Normandy; and, with the m rous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eigh the time of his death; in the mean while quieting his co founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a b ſucceſsful war, with France; and, before his death, he ſettl ceſſion upon his daughter, the empreſs Matilda, widow to emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond hu fry Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, venty-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the cro land was claimed and ſeized by Stephen, earl of Blois, the ſo fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and h then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, tha hold the crown dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda found a generous protector in her uncle David, king of Sco a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glou headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloo ſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his fri their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Ma Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, h abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſone and, being carried before Matilda, ſhe ſcornfully upbraided ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak: the clergy were bold and a and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and were an over-match for the crown. They demanded to be go the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been g Henry I. upon his acceſſion: and finding Matilda refractory, her out of England in 1142. Stephen, having been exchang

ad been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his ob-
l that his clergy and nobility had in fact ex-
ernment, by building 1100 caſtles, where each
ndent prince. We do not, however, find that
ıl ſubjection of the inferic. ranks. Stephen
attempt to force them into compliance with
ſon Euſtace heir-apparent to the kingdom;
clergy ſo much, that they invited over young
ad been acknowledged duke of Normandy,
reſs; and he accordingly landed in England
ers.
the clergy from the barons, who were appre-
ueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads
opoſed an accommodation, to which both par-
who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to
e of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſt-
ive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor.
ation was only precarious and imperfect, yet
Engliſh, who had ſuffered ſo much during the
eat joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely,
one, without a rival, in 1154.
lantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his
d extraordinary abilities for government; and
xteenth year of his age, actions that would have
ienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne,
of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered, by the
in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the
ived the good policy of this, and brought the
ght, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a
day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free.
d, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs,
ibitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by
every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent
is throughout all England, excepting London.
ion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown
the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants; and
ce his overgrown nobility.
ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engage-
exceſſive grants of crown lands made by Stephen,
d as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles
y the barons; but, when he came to attack the
uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that
rmous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes
nmen, not only from lay-courts, but civil taxes.
and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all
ould be incredible, were they not atteſted by the
evidence. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of
nd chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated
is man, powerful from his office, and ſtill more ſo
ſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intre-
d enemy to temporal power of every kind, but at
ıd politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at
of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions
, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh See
gy. Becket, finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream,

ſigned thoſe conſtitutions till they could be ratified by the po
as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the
termined ſpirit of any in his time, was then embroiled with all
bours; and the See of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Be
ing been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public whi
chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king
his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who
the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the laity abſolved f
allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubm
treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who return
phantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſw
pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſuppo
Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in
the firſt ſubject in his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, i
guiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his r
cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the
four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh
ville, and Richard Brito; who, without acquainting Henry w
intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becke
before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the ye
Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedienc
knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſu
that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſco
monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well-known maxim, endeav
cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the
mily of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable p
in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between
kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken
and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay
mage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and fo
other dominions. It was alſo agreed, that liege homage ſhould
and fealty ſworn to Henry, without reſerve or exception, b
earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland fro
Henry ſhould deſire it, in the ſame manner as by his othe
The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls
and tenants in chief, were likewiſe obliged to render liege ho
the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of
and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but t
of Guienne and Poitou, he became almoſt as powerful in Fran
French king himſelf, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom.
old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had
pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, pa
the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Elean
even engaged her ſons, Henry (whom his father had unadviſe
ed to be crowned in his own life time), Richard and John, int
ed rebellions, which affected their father ſo much, as to th
into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 11
fifty-ſeventh of his age. The ſum he left in ready money at h
has perhaps been exaggerated; but the moſt moderate accou
it amount to 200,000 pounds of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtab
over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the powe
barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged tr

y thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined
he ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young
oſt 87l. 10s. 4d. in the ſheriff of London's ac-
Maddox: a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry in-
s in windows into England, and ſtone arches in

thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in Lon-
to the amount of a hundred or more, of the ſons
t citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious
nto rich houſes and plunder them, to rob and
o commit, with impunity, all ſorts of diſorders.
176, divided England into ſix parts, called *cir-*
o go at certain times of the year and hold *aſſizes*,
e people, as is practiſed at this day.
d the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeit-
n wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or
e ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the
was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the move-
of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. To
e ages, it may not be improper to mention the
rchbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of
judge of the violence of military men and lay-
could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's
d an aſſembly of the clergy at London, both the
privilege of ſitting on his right hand; which
begot a controverſy between them. The monks
ſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in the preſence
he ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled
bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up
was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.
Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the
ng ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found
; and for their own ends they perſuaded him to
t but ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where
performed actions of valour that gave counte-
of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious but fruit-
de a truce of three years with Saladin emperor
his return to England was treacherouſly ſur-
Auſtria, who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to
. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor
ut 300,000 pounds of our preſent money.
ngs enjoyed their lands in England, they found
enerally in every king's reign to perform ho-
were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid it

s were made in England at this time. An ox ſold
ch anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and
r one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now
e all over the kingdom. Richard was ſlain in

: William I. king of Scotland, and his ſubjects conſented to
and and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their ſovereigns and
homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this
ichard I. Vide lord Lyttleton's Hiſtory of Henry II. Vol. v.

beſieging the caſtle of Chalons in the year 1199, the forty
his age, and tenth of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is in
the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur
ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to
The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip,
of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court
deprived him of Normandy. John, notwithſtanding, in his
the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſona
but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, tha
dered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown a
at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five d
great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he
his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope: and after experiencing va
tunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the baron ob
in 1216 to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name
*Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Eng
ty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunit
the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxo
and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and
As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enla
property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſe
and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubje
as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely
but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection.
barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transfe
Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, King of France.
umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive
country becoming a province to France, they returned to Jo
giance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope
confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the eighte
of his reign, and the forty-ninth of his age, juſt as he had
of reſuming his authority.

The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him.
of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a
chooſe a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect
riffs and common council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when the crown devo
Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age.
of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking
the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of
dom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the
England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus ret
independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency
upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The king was of a ſoft plia
ſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter.
he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges whi
been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of t
was formed againſt him and his government; and a civil war
out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons an
mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible di
and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his ſiſte
made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſoci
king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners, at
of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and

of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's
berty, and aſſembling as many as he could of
were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the
gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated
1265, and killed Montfort. The repreſenta-
England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed
giſlature, in a ſeparate houſe; and this gave
enures in England: but hiſtorians are not
e commons before this time formed any part
s or great councils. Prince Edward being
cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in
r of his age, and fifty-ſixth of his reign, which
glorious; and yet, to the ſtruggles of this
meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day.
ounted to an enormous height. There are
being paid for money, which tempted the
d, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions
n the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extor-
ade a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the
ang them if they refuſed compliance. They
d deſired leave to retire with their effects out
e king replied, "How can I remedy the op-
? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I
venues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I
d not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay
5,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing,
rom any hand, from any quarter, or by any
s father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a
his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be
ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth,
quired of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now en-
by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law-
this reign.

ngland, on the news of his father's death, in-
crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner which
r may have ſome idea of the luxury of the
s, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens
goats. (See Rymer's Fœdera.) Alexander III.
at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500
thoſe that could catch them to keep them.
d politic prince; and being perfectly well ac-
intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his
tion of the laws, have juſtly given him the title
He paſſed the famous Mortmain act, whereby
ined from giving, by will or *otherwiſe*, their
d) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that
cence from the crown." He granted certain
e Ports, which, though now very inconſider-
to attend the king when he went beyond ſea,
ach having twenty armed ſoldiers on board,
their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days.
o pay him tribute, and annexed that princi-
was the firſt who gave the title of Prince of

with the continent were productive of many

benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction o
glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been i
the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were
England about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold
workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay, and mark of the
company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfor
to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth
thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufact
kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpeciall
affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the ſixty-ninth
age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was engaged in a
dition againſt Scotland. He ordered his heart to be ſent t
Land, with 32,000 pounds for the maintenance of the *Holy*

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhowed early diſpoſiti
couraging favourites; but Gaveſton, his chief minion, a G
ing baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the thron
advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon
his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded
honours, and married Iſabella, daughter of the French kin
ſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lo
The barons, however, obliged him once more to baniſh his
and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruc
all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to whi
nockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat En
ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons
upon young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king; but h
came his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and amb
baniſhed, together with his father, whom he had procured
earl of Wincheſter. The queen, a furious, ambitious wo
ſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the comm
from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard,
defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prero
cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes; and many noble pat
their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at laſt
enamoured of Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, an
one of the moſt active of the anti-royaliſt lords. A breac
her and the Spencers ſoon followed; and going over to F
her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in Eng
returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Sp
ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and for
abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fi
of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was
complete her guilt; and he was moſt barbarouſly murdere
ley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her a
ramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living, then and
to be nearly as five or ſix is to one; always rememberin
money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or
ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goo
2½d. that is 7½d. of our money, or, according to the pr
ſix to one, it would now coſt us 3s. 9d. The knights Tem
ſuppreſſed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was the
tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; a
deavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power by executing m

an end to all national differences with Scot-
er was created earl of March. Edwar young
nſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in
few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham.
public death, hanged as a traitor on the com-
n, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confine-
s, to her death. It was not long before Edward
with David, king of Scotland, though he had
id was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who
ary, king of Scotland, and general, and did the
d for Scotland as his father had done to Ed-
n the death of Charles the Fair, king of France
d ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which,
ut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Phi-
, as being the next heir-male by ſucceſſion; but
ard, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter
ned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſuc-
as preferred; but the caſe being doubtful, Ed-
and invaded France with a powerful army.
vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions
then in full force, and the government of Eng-
public liberty, appeared. The French officers
. They and their men were equally undiſ-
t, though far more numerous than their ene-
Engliſh freemen, on the other hand, having
ht for, which they could call their own, inde-
, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by
ith proper armour, and ſubmitting to military
ordination in the field. The war, on the part
fore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory.
le of king of France, uſing it in all public acts,
s of France with his own, adding this motto,
l and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346,
were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince
ſixteen years of age (his father being no more
gh the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs
eded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe
e than three knights and one eſquire, and about
battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between
l the French king John, but with great ſuperior
on the part of the French, who were totally de-
nd his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It
nber of French killed in this battle was double
ſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with
ated his royal priſoners formed the brighteſt

re not confined to France. Having left his queen
the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had
ake priſoner David king of Scotland, who had
gland, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy
ned a priſoner eleven years. Thus Edward had
owned heads his captives at London. Both kings
ned; David for 100,000 marks, and John for
crowns; but John returned to England, and died
avoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which

Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful
fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions
the prince of Wales; and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubje
on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pl
prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince*, fro
ing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaig
where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſe
conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year
father did not long ſurvive him; for he died diſpirited and
Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the ſixty-fifth of his age
firſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Eur
than Edward did; and he was one of the beſt and moſt illuſtr
that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Bent on the conqueſt of
gratified the more readily his people in their demands for
and ſecurity to their liberties and properties; but he thereby
his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he m
throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of
He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyer
and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing the w
nufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time, generally ex
unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſee
been much the ſame as in the preceding; and few of the En
even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtandi
increaſe of property in England, villanage ſtill continued in
epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed wh
ward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France: b
tainly was well known before his death. The magnificen
Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of condu
work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the peo
age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, h
every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tile
penters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were e
for a ſhort time: they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and
all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay an
and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fo
man, which was a great allurement to enter into the ſerv
wages of a maſter-carpenter was limited through the who
three-pence a day, a common carpenter two-pence, mone
age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford,
the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reform
his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many
all ranks and ſtations. He was a man of parts, learning, and
has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publ
in queſtion thoſe doctrines which had generally paſſed for
undiſputed, during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickl
derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſ
tiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the
in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrong
to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great

* He was alſo the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being
father duke of Cornwall; and, ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of
both duke of Cornwall.

a more free and inquiring age. He had many
of Oxford, and at court, and was powerfully
vil designs of the pope and bishops by John of
er, one of the king's sons, and other great men.
guished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.
e Black Prince, was only eleven years of age
hrone. The English arms were then unsucces-
Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took
of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle,
s, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the
s of people. The truth is, agriculture was
state, that corn, and other victuals, were suf-
, and the English had fallen upon a way of ma-
tion, their leather, horns, and other native com-
gard to the woollen manufactures, they seem,
been exceeded by none in Europe. John of
ctions with the crowns of Portugal and Spain
England; and so many men were employed in
he commons of England, like powder receiv-
t once flamed out into open rebellion, under
rieft, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others. The
he conduct of these insurgents was very violent,
xtremely unjustifiable; but it cannot justly be
people of England then laboured under many
a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reason to be dis-
rnment.

above sixteen: but he acted with great spirit
the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the
worth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman,
Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death,
rents. Richard then associated to himself a
is people and great lords again took up arms;
e duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they
ore into terms; but being insincere in all his
on the point of becoming more despotic than
ever had been, when he lost his crown and
phe.

between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke
uke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them
arks of injustice to the former, who now be-
by his father's death. Richard carrying over
rebellion in Ireland, a strong party formed in
sult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke
n. He landed from France at Ravenspur in
at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Eng-
back to England, where his troops refusing to
whom he had affected to despise, generally de-
ade prisoner with no more than twenty attend-
d to London, he was deposed in full parlia-
harge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon af-
ave been starved to death in prison, in the year
of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign.
her of his two marriages.
of England were possessed of great power at the
, yet we do not find that it abated the influence

of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much pr England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity; an ſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth*, ſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lanca ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, i to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great no in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed t activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their power. This was underſtood by the Percy family, the grea north of England, who complained of Henry having depriv ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and t ous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberla ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur; but it en defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of W equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrection of under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to ment, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all while, to ſalve the defect of his title the parliament entailed upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotte ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Ro to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that king ing a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of i vice to his government; and, before his death, which ha 1413, in the forty-ſixth year of his age, and thirteenth of he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, then had diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhi burden carrying on a great trade all over Europe, bu Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the di ders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their d It is however a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time lower ſtate in England, and all over Europe, than it had bee before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often f it by proxy, in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot re N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me" or, "As my lord biſhop ca himſelf, at his requeſt, I have ſubſcribed." By the influe court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in of parliament 1401, for the burning of heretics, occaſioned b

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the na he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, bec ſingularity.

*In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I, Henry of Lancaſter, challeng of Yngelande, and the croun, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; als I ſcendit by right line of the blode* (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *comin king Henry Thirde, and throgh that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, wit and of my frendes, to recover it; the which reaume was in poynt to be undon gouernance, and undoying of the gude lawes.*

iffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one
f St. Oſithe in London, was burnt alive by the
o the mayor and ſheriffs of London.
: with foreign parts was againſt England at the
in 1413: ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The
vers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous;
and lord Cobham having joined them, it was
greed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign
ment; but this appears to have been a ground-
bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to
of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been
ie oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age; and he
lity who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry
gaged in a conteſt with France, which he had
avading. He demanded a reſtitution of Nor-
vinces that had been taken from England in the
the payment of certain arrears due for king
reign of Edward III.; and availing himſelf of
hat kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy fac-
ere he firſt took Harfleur, and then defeated the
Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and
Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences,
number of French princes of the blood, and
ho were there killed. Henry, who was as great
r, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French
ffectually, that he forced the queen of France,
s VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her
Catharine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to de-
France during her huſband's life, and him and
ie French monarchy, which muſt at this time
l, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill con-
) furniſhed the dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and
rown for his head. Henry, however, made a
aris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and af-
of the French nobility, he returned to Eng-
hat might cruſh the dauphin and his Scottiſh
ibly would have been ſucceſsful, had he not
rder, 1442, the thirty-fourth year of his age,
ign.
eſſes in France revived the trade of England, and
afed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties
ualty. As he died when he was only thirty-four
to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not
all the continent of Europe, which was then
ie diviſions among its princes; but whether this
ervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of
cannot determine.
exact account of the ordinary revenues of the
n, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l.
ly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III.'s
f England had neither become much richer nor
f 200 years. The ordinary expenſes of the govern-
507l. ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3,207l.
houſehold, for his wardrobe, for the expenſes of
articles. This ſum was not nearly ſufficient even

in time of peace; and, to carry on his wars, this great co
reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all
pawned his jewels, and ſometimes the crown itſelf; he ra
to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt
reer of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I m
particulars that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity
ance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the exp
greateſt king in Europe were ſcarcely equal to the p
ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V
the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England.
ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old
conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his fath
French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well
He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of B
Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments,
courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts.
death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his fam
in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles VII. The du
ford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious
at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have co
conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour
conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phænomenon hardly to
leled in hiſtory, ſhe being born of the loweſt extraction,
cow-keeper, and ſome time a helper in ſtables in public
muſt, notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed an amazing fund
as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic a
placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was tak
by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of C
who burnt her alive for a witch, at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of t
Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. c
to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and th
their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding th
courage of Talbot the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their ot
The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its
home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the go
and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the
of Sicily, a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable d
while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubje
land, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury,
avarice ruined the intereſt of England both at home and abro
to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant
was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcen
mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. a
claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John
Edward's youngeſt ſon: and he affected to keep up the diſti
white roſe; that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is c
he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown
reigning family; and he loſt no opportunity of forming a
aſſert his right: but acted at firſt with a moſt profound diſ
The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was
enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in parli
was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off o
ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſu

aded by one Jack Cade, a man of low condi-
ourt a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated
zens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be
the duke of York. The inglorious manage-
irs in France befriended him; and upon his
Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobi-
ng conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's re-
moſt profound reverence to Henry.
power and reputation in England, next to the
earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of War-
greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England;
ned to ſome virtues, rendered him equally po-
ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and
the king, that duke was made protector of the
prepared for arms; and the king recovering,
l activity aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts
battle of St. Albans, and the king himſelf was
uke of York was once more declared protector
was not long before the queen reſumed all her
nent, and the king, though his weakneſs be-
d more viſible, recovered all his authority.
pon this threw off the maſk, and, in 1459, he
wn; and the queen was again defeated by the
as now called the king-maker. A parliament
ed, it was enacted that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the
the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the
iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen,
iſe. She retreated northwards; and the king
e pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that, aſſembling a
the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of
ſlain, in 1460.
though the duke of York and his party openly
crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry;
ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to re-
and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts.
advanced towards London; and defeating the
ſecond battle of St. Albans, ſhe delivered her
ers committed by her northern troops diſguſted
that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the
ed, on the 28th of February 1461, while the
were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon
d fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody
ned in any civil war. After prodigies of va-
d on both ſides, the victory remained with
d near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of
er huſband were once more obliged to fly to
et with generous protection.
rried on with greater animoſity than any per-
garet was as blood-thirſty as her opponents;
ither ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially
, were deferred only for a few hours.
nceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a
in the north of England, but met with defeat
her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was car-

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned o
June, fell in love with, and privately married, Elizabeth
ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the
wick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage,
baſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the
the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's m
out, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returne
inflamed with rage and indignation, and, from being
friend, became his moſt formidable enemy; and gaining
of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner; but eſcapi
confinement, the earl of Warwick and the French kin
declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced
and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning fr
advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his
York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed t
royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner,
and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet. A few day
feated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Marg
together with her ſon prince Edward, whom Edward's
duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid
great ſhow of probability) to have done his father Hen
priſoner in the tower of London, a few days after, in th

Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſuppl
penſes of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, a
to treat, with France: but his irregularities brought hi
(1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty ſeco

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade
tures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed dur
of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navig
thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve
the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own mercha
reign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that
invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to h
ported into England by William Caxton, and which
countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reig
ing in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. Th
was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Eng
who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres.
printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilat
French or monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged
time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapi
progreſs among the Engliſh than it did in any other Eur
The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, a
chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerci
with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of h
lations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen;
the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's
among the great men, found means to baſtardiſe her iſſ
parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-con
their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time
guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted the crow
offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death
lity and great men whom he thought to be well affecte
king's family. Whether the king and his brother were m

, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, nely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was e of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the mur- at the earl of Richmond, who ſtill remained in et correſpondence with the remains of Edward Fering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was England at the head of about 2000 foreign ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, d, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt rſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt viſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his 85.

of baſtardy affected the daughters as well as the t no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had narried Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, ouſes, which happily put an end to the long and e contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay ntages of his marriage. He was the firſt who lled *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts; and, in imita- he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous he barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, ctor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſ- very, and attending his perſon. The deſpotic wed its original to Henry; but at the ſame owledged that he paſſed many acts eſpecially on, that were highly for the benefit of his niſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were nortgage their lands, without fines or licences

its conſequences, is perhaps, the moſt impor- ed in an Engliſh parliament, though its ten- ave been known to the politic king. Luxury, e, and the diſcovery of America, had broken into England; and monied property being the commons, the eſtates of the barons became y of their dangerous privileges: and thus the gradually extinguiſhed in England.

tering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in as attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a n Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of dward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adven- n, which were various and uncommon; but it is e Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scot- be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to ward V. and his brother, but never did it to the d though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Hen- et, by the kind manner in which he entertained

and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be tl
York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon; w
have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor.
various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands,
up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavo
along with the innocent earl of Warwick; for which Perl
ed, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon,
of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arra
to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying ſoon af
Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 cr
that he conſented to her being married again to his ſec
prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had n
ſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the
garet, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotla
was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his
happened in 1509, the fifty-ſecond year of his age,
fourth of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterli
equivalent to five millions at preſent; ſo that he may b
have been maſter of more ready money than all the kin
beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being
ginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of
his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant
for foreign alliances which he intended not to purſue.

The vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitutio
during Henry VII.'s reign has been already mentioned.
love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reaſo
not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the fir
diſcovery from Columbus; whoſe propoſals being reject
that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet
diſcovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he ef
paſſage of thirty-three days, and took poſſeſſion of the c
name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, howeve
amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who diſcov
land of North America in 1498; and we may obſerve, t
this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, h
chants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew th
was not ſufficient for thoſe enterpriſes which they had in
the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fl
other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt hav
glouſly advanced before Henry's death. An inſtance of
in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had
of 20s. per week for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and co
of meat and drink; alſo for two gentlewomen, one wom
gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight
11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and cloathing
maintenance of ſeven horſes, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſ
yearly, money being ſtill 1½ times as weighty as our
coin. Wheat was at that day no more than 3s. 4d. a qu
anſwers to 5s. of our money; conſequently it was abou
as cheap as at preſent: ſo that, had all other neceſſaries
cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1260l. 10s. 6d.
dern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at th
Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we e
and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantag

ty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any
e of power in Europe; but it is certain that he
ges in commerce with which his father became
imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſup-
Cabot's diſcoveries; and he ſuffered the Eaſt
ngroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity
n the affairs of the continent; and his flatterers
preparations for the conqueſt of all France.
ſtabliſhing what is properly called a *naval royal*,
ce of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure),
expenſes. He became a candidate for the
its vacancy; but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions
and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who
enry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars
was directed by Wolſey's views upon the
ped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but
ceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare
o had been taken priſoner at the battle of
, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and
ir expenſes, till at laſt he was forced to lay
jects.

his time the great enemy of the reformation,
popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a
Of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521,
him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which
is day; but, about the year 1527, he began to
egard to the validity of his marriage with his
I not ſay how far on this occaſion he might
of his conſcience, or averſion to the queen,
mous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the
ed, before he had obtained from Rome the
rom the pope. The difficulties he met with
Wolſey, who died heart-broken, after being
er and poſſeſſions.

nces, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt
o, or dependence upon, the church of Rome,
ormation; in which, however, many of the
rſtitions were retained. Henry never could
meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſ-
t on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion
y, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head
to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in
the moſt arbitrary manner; his wiſhes, how-
too readily complied with, in conſequence of
his parliaments. The diſſolution of the reli-
nenſe wealth that came to Henry by ſeiſing all
y in his kingdom, enabled him to give full
diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent
ſhed on ſcaffolds, and ſeldom any long time
rked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his ty-
was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended
rd IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the mar-
Montague, and others of the blood royal, for
e with that cardinal.

ne Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune

and family, but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the
fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He di
much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her; and obtaining a
ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 3000l. a
fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke
whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His l
Catharine Parr, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe ha
eſcaped being brought to the ſtake, for her religious opin
favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed wi
and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on proteſtants and c
put the brave earl of Surry to death, without a crime b
againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſ
fered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's
1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reig

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII
means of printing, better known than that of his predeceſſo
tention to the naval ſecurity of England was highly comme
it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary pc
quently aſſumed, in many reſpects, for the glory and intereſ
jects. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it r
didly confeſſed, that, had the reformation gone through a
preſcribed by the laws and the courts of juſtice, it pro
could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; a
Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the
made of the church's property among his courtiers and fav
thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promot
ſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and th
ry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion
the moſt learned man of his age. He brought to England
and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and arc
in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of l
nificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generou
Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole, rather wh
ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and
many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pu
tion.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Eng
was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was
a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of
death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency w
the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards th
and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of t
tion, and a bitter enemy to the See of Rome.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformati
effected without many public diſturbances. The comm
during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived
relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and b
from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arm
been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral
ſurrections were cruſhed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through
Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In
particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſigh
deration which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recomm

xecutions, on account of religion, took place.
s him from blame; and his charitable en-
, and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral
and flouriſh, ſhow the goodneſs of his heart.
umption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age,

n-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a
vill; for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the
claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the
nger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though
her 17th year of age, was a prodigy of learn-
bulk of the Engliſh nation recogniſed the
Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head. Her huſ-
Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland,
manner.
ed on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection un-
ed like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery,
England. She recalled cardinal Pole from ba-
trumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the
which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley,
nd many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Eng-
ere conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number
oth ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through
ngdom. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gar-
ſter, were the chief executioners of her bloody
lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to extermi-
ubjects.
hilip II. of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an un-
and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that, by the
ion was made for the independency of the Eng-
ſtance of troops which ſhe furniſhed to her huſ-
portant battle of St. Quintin; but that victory
at the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon
only place then remaining to the Engliſh in
been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III.
iefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections
is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died
ear of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the
g flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit)
archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentle-
100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers, 26
virgins, 2 boys, and two infants; one of them
onner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mo-
e ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the
d in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly

to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the
diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and
he eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to
t of the circumſtances attending her mother's
as diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild
daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France;
ad on the continent was Philip king of Spain,
ul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in Eng-
no more than 25 years of age at the time of her

inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facili firſt parliament in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing popery were ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed fo it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in Englan 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regar ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and fo there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis I was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend, her claim. not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſt Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lo and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the her other miſconduct and misfortunes, drove her to tak Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had often been promiſe honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful El to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained priſoner 18 years in England; then brought her to a ſham tending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without ſuf of her guilt, cut off her head—an action which greatly ta glories of her reign.

The ſame Philip who had been the huſband of her late Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her: bu ouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful nego tween her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at h eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy in her dominions. Sh the proteſtants of France againſt their perſecuting princes piſts, and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brot French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of t be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dread the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, tha no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Eliz which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter, it is that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perha been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under t Parma, the beſt captain of that age, and that he procured for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. T of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the they fought; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea-o him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the E had begun, and few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their p to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, ſir Francis D tain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſe this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Le acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. T ceiter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the bliſhed their independency; and then ſhe ſent forth her f

of Cumberland, and other gallant naval of-
Weſt Indies, whence they brought prodi-
m the Spaniards, into England.
grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though
earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capric-
of taking arms, and then cut off his head.
had been betrayed into this ſanguinary mea-
a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her
ſeventieth year of her age, and 45th of her
named her kinſman James VI. king of
y, for her ſucceſſor.
eat lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them
ediately or remotely, every act of her govern-
e proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of
king of Spain was the head. She cruſhed the
ions for the ſame reaſon, and made a farther
h of England, in which ſtate it has remained
Engliſh Eaſt India Company received its firſt
ng then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in
ing firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the
Vaſco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.),
ubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed
Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.
ternal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign
he was far from being a friend to perſonal li-
ty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt
men. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans,
rty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered
ed.
re a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be
the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of
nding the long inveterate animoſities between
s was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities
had received wrong impreſſions of the regal of-
inion of his own dignity, learning, and political
ortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne un-
at he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional
caſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe
arious cauſes had prevented the people from op-
our. The nation had been wearied and ex-
nd deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lan-
e courſe of which the ancient nobility were in
the people were inclined to endure much, rather
emſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither
lowance for the glories of Elizabeth, which, as I
ed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free,
h the improvement of knowledge and learning had
nd. It is needleſs to point out the vaſt increaſe
ade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at
d their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great
fect an union between England and Scotland;
n this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that
of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth
d no violent reſentment at the diſappointment.
o him at the beginning of his reign, that the

courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enem opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of th treaſon*.

James and his miniſters were continually inventing new money, as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other ille Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcou at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova S pay ſuch a ſum, and inſtituted a new order of knights-ba was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts wi cal caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more a theolo prince; and in 1617 he attempred to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in ma elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in G he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memo has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that p his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it ſerved, that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming Bohemia; that, had he kindled a war to re-inſtate him in electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſam the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have receiv elector's dependants and friends in Germany. It is certai that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of mone them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 m Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, whe mans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond Spinola, the Spaniſh general.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his parti vourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gen was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. His ne was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upo diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and

* This was a ſcheme of the Roman-catholics to cut off at one blow and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was alſo exp queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enliſtin ſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dread being religiouſly kept near eighteen months, was happily diſcovered i manner: about ten days before the long-wiſhed-for meeting of parlia catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance in parliament a which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper the king, who, ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſu gerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged adviſable to inſpe below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delaye immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent tendants; and before the door of the vault, under the upper houſe, find who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeiſed him, time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been ca under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing prope to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance be diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never in number, being ſeiſed by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, a in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the lics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that th cles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a marty

ames had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy
ntimately to the court of Spain, that it might
the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacri-
er Raleigh on a charge of having committed
paniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. James
n, Henry Prince of Wales, who had an invinci-
iſh match, threw his eyes upon the Infanta of
for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that
ham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon
in with the prince's romantic humour; and,
they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a
courtſhip was played; but the prince returned
d had it not been for the royal partiality in
f Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain,
rought Buckingham to the block.

ile perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom
furniſh money equal to his demands; and at laſt
marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to
ter to Henry the Great of France. James died
this match; and it is thought that, had he lived,
d Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in
, after a reign over England of twenty-two years.
e arts and learning under his reign, it has been
mes encouraged and employed that excellent
Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the
e in England; and in his reign poetical genius,
raged at court, ſhone with great luſtre. Mr.
time projected the bringing water from Hert-
nd ſupplying the city with it by means of pipes.
d the *New River*.

ke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was
on, a ſubaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter
ary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in
iſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He,
rliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade,
be paid by many of the merchants and members
ons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the
or admitting them to bail. The houſe of com-
oceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying
leman-uſher of the black rod, who came to ad-
finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach,
the parliament; after which he exhibited infor-
f the moſt eminent members, among whom was
who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of
mmon erudition. They objected to the juriſ-
but their plea was over ruled, and they were
he king's pleaſure.

erated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The
no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national
ch, Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed
inciples of liberty were imperfectly or not at all
oney upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch ne-
oſolete claims, particularly for knighthood; and
ithout authority of parliament. His government
more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine,

Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no gr
or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral piece
offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtri
the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe piec
chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and pun
much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignatio
authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government
more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his c
to the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who w
bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſe
ſecute the puritans, and, in the year 1637, to introduce ep
to Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret conneſt
diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England in Auguſt
Charles was ſo ill ſerved by his officers and his army,
forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, wh
ſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being no
friended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the kin
with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man
lities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord-lieu
land: and he was generally believed to be the firſt min
Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to t
he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf
in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, th
an object of public deteſtation. As lord-preſident of the N
lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſ
land, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was gu
actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in co
length, on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block,
againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manr
the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execu
biſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did n
till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of J
In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the
into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the fu
of the liberty of the ſubject. It eſtabliſhed particularly, "
hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan,
tax, or ſuch like charge, without common conſent by a
ment;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtanc
univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration prevailed throu
tion. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on Octob
where the proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or
the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the
great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charl
voured them out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The
expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtan
the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders
houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the
Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to
commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lor
Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, ſir Arthur Haſel
Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly
eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſo
people; and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfac
make them.

any acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke bers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many y were much attached to the crown, and con- urs as connected with it; and a great part joined to the royal party. The parliament, nſelves the executive power, and were favour- ng towns and corporations; but its great re- The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a ſing commander; but he had great depen- he princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the ſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning ny had the aſcendancy; but in the progreſs of ferent turn. The earl of Eſſex was made gene- , and the firſt battle was fought at Edgehill in of October, 1642. Both parties claimed the vantage lay with Charles; for the parliament that they invited the Scots to come to their aſ- rdingly entered England anew, with about Charles attempted to remove the parliament to embers of both houſes met; but his enemies ninſter, and continued to carry on the war pimoſity. The independent party, which had ught of, began now to increaſe and to figure as re averſe to the preſbyterians, who till then had ſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; agement, under the direction of the famous plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſ- the heads of the preſbyterians, from the par- ſuggeſtion that they were not for bringing the not for reducing the king too low; and for in- was an excellent officer, but more manageable, and ſome independent officers. In the mean with reſentment and loſs on both ſides. Two Newbury, one on September 20th, 1643, and the 4, in which the advantage inclined to the king. other ſucceſſes; and having defeated ſir William earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, he was obliged to eſcape by ſea; but his in- nſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his ſelves by their valour.

he king's army received was at Marſton-moor, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the ated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, rs. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage ell; and though it might have been retrieved by in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſeries his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many cularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during s of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to ounded the king's prerogative. They were out- by the independents; who were aſſiſted by the nd unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In s at laſt ſucceeded in perſuading the members at les was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions

might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts cont became more deſperate; Charles by piece-meal loſt all his town forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the d battle of Naſeby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the conduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with freſh fortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place wh thought he could be ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark, and no good underſta ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians; but th and moſt loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make peace. In this melancholy ſituation of his affairs, he eſcaped th guiſe from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army before Newar May 6, 1646, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, how were ſo intimidated by the reſolutions of the parliament at We ſter, that, in conſideration of 400,000l. of their arrears being they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliam commiſſioners, probably not ſuſpecting the conſequences.

The preſbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make p with the king; but they were no longer maſters, being forced to re laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of commiſſioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian bers, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the com was reduced to 150, moſt of them officers of the army. In the while, Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe di ſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly wat Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf in lonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the Iſle of W A freſh negotiation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the ind dents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and ly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeiſed upo perſon, brought him priſoner to London, carried him before a co juſtice of their own erecting; and, after an extraordinary trial, his was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of J ry, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and the 24th of his

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues; and ſome have ſup that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, had he been reſtored to his throne, he would have become an exc prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been re-inſta power. It is however certain, that, notwithſtanding the tyrannic ture of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by numbers; and many in the courſe of the civil war, who had be great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe, as they loſt their lives and fortunes. The ſurviving children of Charle Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration, the pr Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs rietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe d ter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sar

Charles to the block were men of different per-
; but many of them poſſeſſed very extraordinary
it. They omitted no meaſure that could give a
kingly power in England; and it cannot be de-
ected themſelves into a commonwealth, they made
is for retrieving the glory of England by ſea.
any of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated
though they were forced to employ them in the
id afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received
g. By cutting down the timber upon the royal
d a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen
neral, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and though
l to great difficulties, he totally defeated the
f Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame common-
of navigation; and declaring war againſt the
ought till then invincible by ſea, they effec-
republicans in repeated engagements.
well, who hated ſubordination to a parliament,
et himſelf declared commander in chief of the
ral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, car-
Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe;
g now but little employment, began to be afraid
uld be forgotten; for which reaſon he went,
hout any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers,
rliament, opprobriouſly driving all the members,
t of their houſe. He next annihilated the coun-
om the executive power was lodged, and trans-
ation of government to about 140 perſons, whom
hitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.
olland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious,
ven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little
paſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive
nd, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral, Van Tromp.
me wanted to be declared king; but he perceived that
insurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his
e ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however,
*ſor* of the commonwealth of England; a title under
d all the power that had been formerly annexed to the
o king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more
me reſpects than he did; yet no tyrant ever had fewer
d even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he
him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing the
mwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſuc-
d by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult
arloe's and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a
vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of
ht months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of
8, in the 60th year of his age.
e denied that England acquired much more reſpect from
, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell,
een treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was
great men who formed the republic which Cromwell abo-
o as it were inſtantaneouſly, called forth the naval ſtrength
m. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted

to one million three hundred thouſand pounds, of which a
to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder t
civil government. In the ſame year Cromwell aboliſhed
*capite*, by knight's ſervice, and the ſocage in chief, and
courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances th
complained of during the late reigns were likewiſe remo
year the total charge or public expenſe of England amo
millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred
nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and c
into the exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundr
two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the yea
year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. T
tereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſyn
creaſing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigati
palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſta
afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of al
aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was grante
advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffer
Laud's intolerant ſchemes, having driven numbers of artiſ
rica, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorati
add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the com
and the citizens in particular, by which they were enable
their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had h
been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken
ſober maxims of the republicans; for ſome time before his
fected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and atte
maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many i
terpoſed effectually in favour of the proteſtants abroad.
ences were not much patroniſed, and yet he had the goo
meet, in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent miniature pai
coins, done by Simon, exceed in beauty and workmanſhip
age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe; and,
and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſe
adminiſtration, ſo he ſhowed ſome regard to men of learni
ticularly to thoſe intruſted with the care of youth at the u

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his fath
protector, ſufficiently proves the great difference there was be
as to ſpirit and parts, in the affairs of government. Richar
in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool
government; and he was ſoon after driven, without the lea
oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is vain for hiſtorians of
aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother a
during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precariou
to the merits of any particular perſons. The preſbyteria
zealous in promoting it; but it was effected by the general
of the people, who ſeemed to have thought that neither pe
tection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient
of the monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abiliti
principles, except ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt,
gacity to obſerve this; and, after temporiſing in various ſha
the head of the army, he acted the principal part in reſtorin
For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in th
of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

ored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seem-
to promote his people's happiness. Upon his
of all the feudal tenures, he received from the
excise for life; and in this act, coffee and tea
is long residence, and that of his friends, abroad,
nd the culture of many useful vegetables; such as
nokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans,
er him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by
auspices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and
The Royal Society was instituted, and many po-
rade and colonisation were passed. In short,
vated the true interests of his kingdom, till he
, and sunk in indolence,—failings that had the
espotism itself. He appeared to interest himself
citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666;
greater lustre and conveniences is a proof of
e; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of
n into the most extravagant expenses. He has
for selling Dunkirk to the French king to sup-
he had squandered the immense sums granted
The price was about 250,000l. sterling. But,
t was more defensible than in his secret con-
which were of the most scandalous nature, ut-
welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever
emory.

s of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned
opular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as
sale of Dunkirk; a man of extensive knowledge,
more honest in his intentions than most of his
om he sacrificed to the sycophants of his plea-
t Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried
n and spirit under the duke of York; but,
application of the public money, which had
war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was
found means to insult the royal navy of Eng-
Medway as far as Chatham, and destroying
war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded
t Britain and the States-General, for the pre-
h Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to
s called the *triple alliance*.

s so ill advised as to seize upon the money of
ad been lent him at 8l. per cent. and, to shut
his was an indefensible step; and Charles pre-
the necessity of his affairs, being then on the
Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had
o that republic; for in this war the English
conjunction with those of France. The duke of
nglish fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that
Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son
ed 6000 English forces, who joined the French
; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands
not been for the vanity of their monarch, Lewis
rry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some
nstances. All confidence was now lost between

reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, and th upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotl they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prin in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the invetera Louis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. T Orange was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt em a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign church and ſtate to their true rights. Upon his arrival in was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom Ja ſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the pr and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him, an prince of Orange. James might ſtill have reigned; but rounded with French emiſſaries and ignorant Jeſuits, who not to reign rather than not to reſtore popery. They ſuaded him to ſend his queen, and ſon, real or pretende ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England; wh Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution.*

It is well known that king William's chief object was t power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt u courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported at an expenſe ſhe had never known before. The nation had tious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns; and conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the confirmed and ſecured; though the friends of liberty in g plained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what o been inſiſted on, at a period ſo favourable to the enlargeme rity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole venue, which was put into their hands, and which was ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The therefore now divided; part was allotted for the current vice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parli part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their ci gious rights alone that could provoke them to agree to t lution, for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo hig wealth and proſperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage c chant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was, that year, ble what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 1 The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of Eng the ſame proportion. The war with France, which, on part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enorm and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king Jame Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded reſtored by conqueſt: and the parliament enabled the ki Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt Jame loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. Th France proved ſuperior to that of England in the begin war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an i blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

ned, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day a-
nd the ſupply of the continental war forced the
eſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed,
were taxed, according to their valuations given
es. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the
were the heavieſt taxed; and this prepoſterous
the greateſt and boldeſt operations in finances
eſtabliſhed in that reign, which was the car-
wing money upon the parliamentary ſecurities,
e now called the *public funds*. The chief pro-
id to have been Charles Montague, afterwards
cipal argument for ſuch a project was, that it
ed part of the nation to befriend the Revolution
ending their money, they could have no hopes
ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of
ommercial people to be more induſtrious.
ling the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation,
hich took place under his auſpices, particularly
he bank of England, and the re-coining the ſil-
many mortifications from his parliament, that
n an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for
was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore
, in hopes of being ſupported in his war with
1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of
n king, who acknowledged his title to the crown
e William had loſt his queen*, but the govern-
his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the com-
and his army, all but an inconſiderable number,
urite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his
g the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of
e catholic king Charles II. which was every day
a very impolitic meaſure, which was the parti-
by which that monarchy was to be divided be-
urbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly re-
t, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for
hought William ſaw his error when it was too
e acquitted from their impeachment; and the
ſcovered the inſincerity of the French court,
claimed his ſon king of Great Britain.
William again popular in England. The two
of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with
oſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſ-
the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Han-
ne, 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall
ter he had renewed the grand alliance againſt
March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the
gland. This prince was not made by nature for
ers were cold and forbidding; he ſeemed alſo
e ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſup-
en raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his
yet he often favoured the Tories. The former
ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to
e principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of

* Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

valent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the na
crificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſhar
of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her
and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in Janu
which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries
lies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible they were
the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh.
terms were agreed upon between France and England.
needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by
eſpecially that of Dunkirk: but after all, the peace woul
ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not
death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Cha
whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of
well as king of Spain; and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith
liſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwi
Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war; no
the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Such was the ſtate of
critical period; and I am apt to think from their complex
queen was, by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet
vered, and was even concealed from ſome of her miniſters
call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's
dered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contention
miniſters. The Whigs demanded a writ for the elector
Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England;
obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer, when ſhe fell
gic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 171
tieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign*. N
ing the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utre
cluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected
though the national debt then amounted to about fifty mill
was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of pa

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any i
ſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo
ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in te
of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of
Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king
tain,—his mother, who would have been next in ſucce
died but a few days before. He came over to England
prepoſſeſſions againſt the Tory miniſtry, moſt of whom
This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice
but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Ma
chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was
preſſed the beginning of the next year.

* With her ended the line of the Stuarts, who, from the acceſſion
1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland
the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon
brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was pr
England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germain's, and for ſome time treate
courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He reſided at Rome, wh
the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till
happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 17
feated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rom
tinued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the t
bany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified pl
of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York.

as in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt
parliament; and the members of that which
nuance of their duration from three to ſeven
o have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamen-
Several other extraordinary meaſures took
é. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and
as ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's
the meridian of Hanover rather than that of
ews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged
phlet, that in later times would not have been
adverſion. The truth is, the Whig miniſtry
f every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſ-
. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, un-
and too ſubſervient to his continental connec-
various and complicated. He quarrelled with
bout their German concerns; and, had not
eden, been killed ſo critically as he was, Great
ave been invaded by that northern conqueror,
made for that purpoſe,—he being incenſed at
anover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of
een a part of his dominions.
rrelled with Spain onaccount of the quadruple
rmed between Great Britain, France, Germany,
and his admiral, ſir George Byng, by his orders,
et at Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then
ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up
former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter

t, different from plague, peſtilence, and fa-
d in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the
f the trading companies; but of this we have
t, under the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.
t to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent
, and England's connections with the continent,
ſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and exe-
Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction
ſpicion: but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis
of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee, and
baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity
nſt him; and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's
tioned, though there is little or no reaſon to
t proof of his guilt.
e ſtate of Europe at this time, that, in Septem-
was concluded at Hanover, between the kings
ce, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance
etween the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A
s Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking
he Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral
lies, to watch the Spaniſh plate-fleets. This laſt
inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt
epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips
hem unfit for ſervice. The management of the
tter. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of
were obliged to raiſe.
emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of

any that could happen; and though an oppoſition in the
mons was formed by ſir William Wyndham and Mr. Pult
liament continued to be more and more laviſh in granti
ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of
Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel. Such was
fairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th
at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and
of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for
number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it
that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and fo
teration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which th
in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the
for diminiſhing the national debt, took place likewiſe
The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began n
underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures
This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of
which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in ce
which had been forward in giving in the true value
when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of
George I. died; and ſome differences having happened be
the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the
latter to the crown, that ſir Robert would be diſplaced.
have been the caſe, could another perſon have been fou
pable to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify th
for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father
ever underſtood better the temper of the people of Engl
perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of pow
profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his
but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought th
fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he ne
tion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſchem
meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power: and even that
carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the pe
doors, which might have either produced an inſurrecti
gered his intereſt in the next general election.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconv
at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to con
predations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American
French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and negl
many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and
themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. T
with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſchem
the *Gin Act* in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in
commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as
as ever had ſat in a parliament; and taking advantage of
complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſ
ſtrength of argument and with great eloquence. In juſtic
it ſhould be obſerved, that he filled the courts of juſtice
upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any
the law of the kingdoms. He was ſo far from checking
debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous
thrown out againſt him. He gave way to one or two pr
libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought them
by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England ne

ring his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſ-
nore than repaid to the nation all that was re-
by the increaſe of her trade, and the improve-
ures.

nſort to George II. had been always a firm friend
he died November 20th, 1737, when a variance
ing and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter
ugh Walpole's influence he was deprived not only
proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and
ead of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that
en Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Ad-
ted the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſqua-
Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto
, intractable man, he miſcarried in his other at-
upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of
tonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in
afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the mi-
r, by with-holding the means for carrying it on.
pproaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the
gland, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scot-
was returned to parliament who were no friends
after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the
February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and
ll his employments.

loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity,
les of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the
n. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles
pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion
he Auſtrian dominions), through the ambition of
l all Germany with her armies, and many other
uced George to take the leading part in a conti-
encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards
able but headſtrong miniſter, whom George had
ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in
ordingly put himſelf at the head of his army,
battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743; but would
the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, which
d from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions.

hen engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt
rds; and her enemies thought to avail themſelves
ent that had prevailed in England on account of
even in parliamentary debates, was thought by
ounds of decency. This naturally ſuggeſted to
ying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and
Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould
n whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with
frigate, to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, be-
Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſem-
d publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to a
ſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this en-
ort retroſpect to foreign parts.

oved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the
admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who
troops; and it was thought that about 20,000
men periſhed in the impracticable attempt on Car-

thagens, and by the inclemency of the air and climate duri
expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negotiati
courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſiv
little or no ſervice to Great Britain: ſo that the victory
left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as befo
rence between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had giv
inity to the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of To
little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before onl
lies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain,
turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the
of England, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrativ
could they be brought to act againſt the French till the p
into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government.
rine was in a miſerable condition; and when they at laſt
troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had
edly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it in ſ
that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. W
of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of t
French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt
barrier of the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay
attempted to raiſe the ſiege; but by the coldneſs of the A
the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along
correſpondence with France, he loſt the battle of Fonten
of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that h
were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved wit
intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfort
Anſon returned this year to England with an immenſe t
a million ſterling), which he had taken from the Sp
voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with
perel, took from the French the important town and for
burg, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt, 1745,
tender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland follow
and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern H
advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The governmen
roughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit
debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. The French an
party (for ſuch there was at that time in England) h
ſcheme of diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger ab
ſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one inter
private property. The merchants undertook, in their
king, to ſupport it by receiving bank notes in payment.
able meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the
duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, d
tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange
his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty
of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be the
the Dutch could never be brought to act heartily in the w
were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of C
in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom
manner that has never yet been explained. The allies
diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the gene
England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and
total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French m
merce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſ

I

dmirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gal-
ngliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have
r-admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this
ceſſes of the French and Engliſh during the war
been balanced, and both miniſters turned their

or peace were ſigned in April, 1748, and a defi-
uded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the baſis of
on, on both ſides, of all places taken during the
e intereſt of the national debt was reduced from
f per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole
o three per cent.
t ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted per-
onſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of
a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their
nd a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have
e ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums
d.
merce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Bri-
ich, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South Sea
heir future claims to the aſſiento contract, by vir-
pany had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with
50, died, univerſally lamented, his royal high-
f Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regu-
ent of the year, by which the old ſtyle was abo-
tyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the
one by ſinking eleven days in September, 1752,
eginning the year on the firſt of January. In
paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages.
ments of the French, who had built forts on our
merica, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſend-
f veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments,
ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſ-
ith eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and
to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up
ench men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping
nce, by the Straits of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it
were begun, than the people of England poured
government's loan, and orders were iſſued for
als in Europe as well as in America; and that all
ether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be
t into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effec-
e end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richeſt
ps, and above 8000 of their beſt ſailors, were
gdom.
neral Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent
ck the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio,
lled, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French
t du Quêne (now called Fort Pitt, or Pittſburg);
ohnſon defeated a body of French near Crown
killed about 1000.
he ſpirits of the public were elevated by the for-
which were prepared for carrying on the war, they
ccount that the French had landed 11,000 men in
ort St. Philip there; that Admiral Byng, who had

been ſent out with a ſquadron, at leaſt equal to that of the
been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galliſſonier
laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general Blakeney. The
was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, an
at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power again

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecre
at the head of adminiſtration. He had long been known
eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved him
ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean
ſequence but the loſs of Fort St. Philip, which was more
by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Euro
rica. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, u
Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dow
Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn i
ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, wh
French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was
new nabob, Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death.
laid the foundation of the great extent of territory which
now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem
againſt France, than which nothing could be better calcula
the ſpirit of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies
dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carryin
England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be ma
fort under general ſir John Mordaunt, who was to comm
troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſi
expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September, 1757;
Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the
tober, to St. Helen's, without any attempt having been
on the coaſt of France.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover
powerful army, the Engliſh parliament voted large ſupp
and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The du
berland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſe
was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he ſo
obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the du
lieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At
ſcarcity, next to a famine, raged in England; and the He
who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend t
from an invaſion threatened by the French, remained ſtill
So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mut
was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſi
quence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his
jeſty; and alſo large ſums, amounting in the whole to nea
lions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops
Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttle, and Buckeburg.
which proved afterwards ſo burthenſome to England, was
unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, declar
French had violated the convention concluded between th
duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanover
to reſume their arms under Prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick
general, who inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover: a
of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted
coaſts by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Malo
bourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferd

hich were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A
of which the Engliſh every where performed
y where victorious; but nothing deciſive fol-
pened every campaign with advantage. Even
e moſt glorious, perhaps, in the Engliſh annals,
ngliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular
ning to the concluſion of the war, or towards
n Germany.
ar were borne with cheerfulneſs, and the acti-
Pitt's adminiſtration were greatly applauded.
eneral Amherſt, in Auguſt, 1758, reduced and
n North America, which had been reſtored to
ty at Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the
trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the
rt du Quême, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into
h; acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check
ved at Ticonderoga, and the loſs of above 300
as they were returning under general Bligh
e.
n the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortu-
he admiralty received letters from thence, with
al Pococke had engaged the French fleet near
29th of March, in which engagement a French
Bien-aimé, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that
that on the 3d of Auguſt following, he engaged
nd time near Pondicherry, when, after a briſk
he French bore away with all the ſail they could
o the road of Pondicherry; and that on the 14th
, general Lally, commander of the French army
l to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the
ence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade,
6th of February following, the Engliſh having
ent of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to
ire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty

introduced by the taking of the iſland of Gorée,
by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions
this year in America, and all of them proved ſuc-
was againſt the French Iſlands in the Weſt Indies,
was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt
of Canada. The command was given, by the mi-
eneral Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military
oppoſed, with far ſuperior force, by Montcalme,
ceſsful general the French had. Though the ſitua-
hich Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French
a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregna-
never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and
ver, ſurmounted incredible difficulties; he gained
aham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated
ut was himſelf killed, as was Montcalme; general
next in command, being wounded, the completion
at, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved
ral (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.
t, who was the firſt Engliſh general in command in
d the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all

Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the l
river St. Laurence. Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſ
vided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that th
appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the Fre
in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their er
they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſic
Britain: but on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen a
Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the Str
raltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Téméraire of 74, and Le
74 guns; and burnt L'Océan of 80, and Le Redoutable of 74
reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line and thr
made their eſcape in the night; and on Nov. 20, ſir Edward
feated the Breſt fleet, commanded by Admiral Conflans, off t
Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French ma
80 guns, was taken; the Theſeé of 74, and the Superbe of 70
ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Héros of 74 guns
and afterwards the Juſte of 74 periſhed in the mouth of the
yen or eight French men of war of the line got up the river
throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſ
ſhips of the line and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. T
loſt, on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution o
which ran aſhore in the chaſe. After this engagement, the Fr
over all thoughts of their invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adven
had, with three ſloops of war, alarmed the coaſts of Scotlan
tually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on
from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, th
dore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſqu
ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main
ceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own
advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſiv
expenſive; and many in England began to conſider it now as
the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again a
ſhowed diſpoſitions for treating; and the charges of the wa
began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterli
inclined the Britiſh miniſter to liſten to their propoſals. A ne
was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as
other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of Octo
George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventri
heart) full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age,
of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now Ge
eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but l
lection for his electoral dominions. He never could admit t
was any difference between them and his regal dominions; an
ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeech
liament. We are, however, to remember, that his people grat
in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or preroga
was not very acceſſible to converſation; and, therefore, it was
der, that, having left Germany after he had attained to man's
ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In gov
he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole w
indifference, and ſhowed very little concern at the ſubſequent

. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed paigns in which he ſerved when young. His or private, were never known to interfere with uſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by ce were never better filled than under him. ended the throne with great advantages. His id prejudiced the people in his favour; he was n his perſon tall and comely, and at the time of ain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and alutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among s of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations lv, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore dgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondi-s, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The rench Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general nd ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland leemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Gre-illas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were rms with inconceivable rapidity.

ot eſpouſe a Roman catholic, he was prevented any of the great families of Europe; he there-e houſe of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the head of a in the north-weſt of Germany; and the conduct as hitherto been ſuch as moſt highly to juſtify veyed to England in great pomp, and the nup-the very night of her arrival, viz. Sept. 8, the ſame month the ceremony of the corona-great magnificence in Weſtminſter-abbey.

Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France y, and who had received the beſt information of l private intrigues of the court of Spain, pro-diate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. the council, all the members of which declared y opinion, excepting his brother-in-law, earl found the decline of his influence; and it was Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in direct-king, had acquired an aſcendancy in the royal ver, ſaid, "that, as he was called to the miniſtry le, to whom he conſidered himſelf as account-would no longer remain in a ſituation which r meaſures that he was not allowed to guide." he ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the he adminiſtration. But the next day the king thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at s conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and ntinued for three lives.

d to be carried on with vigour after the reſigna-plans were purſued that he had previouſly con-

March, 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of e; and on the 5th of October following Mr. Pitt reſigned

certed. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, a
the ſouthern department. It was at length alſo found ind
ceſſary to engage in a war with Spain; the famous fa
among all the different branches of the Bourbon family be
known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that
the 4th of January, 1762. A reſpectable armament was
der admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on
mand the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh m
ſtruck at by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt
portant fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt I
ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the
large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz,
which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth
of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through W
the bank in the very hour he was born. The loſs of th
with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spania
ceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine
Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh,
ture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of
counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family
French and Spaniards employed their laſt reſource, which
with and invade Portugal, which had been always under
protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel wa
tended, is not eaſy to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his
jeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by

The negotiations for peace were now reſumed; and the
offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſ
quate on the occaſion. The defection of the Ruſſians fr
deracy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent
duced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other
on the 10th of February, 1763, the definitive treaty of
his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king
concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Por
10th the ratifications were exchanged at Paris: the 22d,
ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and th
ing on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met
tion of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty the extenſive province of Canada, with
Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confi
Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of th
North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi (except the
Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it), were ſurrendered
and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſ
and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mar
Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting to the F
ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt
land, and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland
they yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Gr
quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. V
nica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlemen
by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum-trade of
but we returned Gorée, a ſmall iſland of little value.
that relates to the Eaſt Indies was dictated by the direct
liſh company, which reſtores to the French all the plac
the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall

e province of Bengal; and the city of Manilla
iards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of
bay of Honduras in America. In Europe,
tored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we re-
of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent
marches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody bat-
red much military fame, but at the expenſe of

As to the objects of that war, it was agreed
and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party
war in the ſame ſituation in which they began
red between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to
g as before the war.

eriod was now put was the moſt brilliant, and
oſt glorious events, in the Britiſh annals. No
y party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly
e miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the
e nation had then arrived at a degree of wealth
; and the moneyed man, pleaſed with the af-
ing in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage
y opened his purſe. The ſums of 18, 19, and
few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice,
ears 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no leſs aſto-
n the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets
arter of the world.

h it received the ſanction of a majority of both
as far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the
period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a
ail throughout the nation.

1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the
eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and
irtue of a warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate,
ſeize "the authors, printers, and publiſhers of a
le paper, entitled the North Briton, No. 45."
nder this title ſeverely arraigned the conduct of
repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of
n from whom meaſures of government of a very
ginated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures
Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author, but
tioned in the warrant by which he was appre-
o being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant,
gal. However, he was forcibly carried before
or examination, and they committed him cloſe
his papers being alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe
ſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia.
being procured by his friends, he was brought
mon-Pleas; and the matter being there argued,
iſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; peo-
ed themſelves in it; and Weſtminſter-hall re-
ons when he was ſet at liberty. An informa-
againſt him in the court of King's-Bench, at
thor of the North Briton, No. 45. On the firſt
parliament after theſe tranſactions, Mr. Wilkes
nd made a ſpeech, in which he complained to
erſon the rights of all the commons of England,
rliament had been violated by his impriſonment,

the plundering of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his paper
day a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of common
formation his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, e
of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and da
and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. Th
duel was fought in Hyde Park, between Mr. Wilkes and
another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſ
Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly wit
let. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in votin
Briton, No. 45, to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious l
dered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This o
cordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition
pulace; and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, w
and obliged to take ſhelter in the manſion-houſe. Ano
tion was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſ
and profane poem to be printed, entitled "An Eſſay
Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: a
appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, h
he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigo
wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to q
dom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commo
were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the Nort
the Eſſay on Woman; and towards the end of the year
outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for bei
in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of
ed verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonm

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been mad
the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by
Grenville; and under this gentleman's adminiſtration
paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, which was prod
moſt pernicious conſequences to Great Britain; "an act
*ſtamp duty* in the Britiſh colonies of North America," wh
the royal aſſent on the 22d of March, 1765. Some othe
previous regulations had alſo been made, under pretence o
ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped
the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mo
As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp*-
ed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As th
had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in
cial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted that the Britiſh parliame
they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Ind
doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliamen
ſtamp-act was under conſideration: on which occaſion it
it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, e
ſcendants of Engliſhmen, not to be taxed by any but their o
tatives; that ſo far from being actually repreſented, they
virtually repreſented there, as the meaneſt inhabitants of
are, in conſequence of their intimate connection with th
actually repreſented; and that therefore the attempt to ta
in the Britiſh parliament was oppreſſive and unconſtitutio
other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had b
by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contri
the expenſe of the mother-country. "Thoſe children
planting," ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the
"nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a

, and protected by our arms, will they grudge
to relieve us from the heavy load of national
der?"

rinted by royal authority, reached the colonies,
mark of indignation and contempt. Several
kewiſe committed, with a view of preventing
amp-act; and aſſociations were alſo formed
whereby the people bound themſelves not to
Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be
ants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed
olony to correſpond with each other, concern-
the whole, and even appointed deputies from
t in Congress at New York. They aſſem-
ity, in October 1765; and this was the firſt
erican continent.

America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in Eng-
ght proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The mar-
appointed firſt Lord of the treaſury; and ſome
ucceeded to the vacant places. In March, 1766,
epealing the American ſtamp-act. This was
rted by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though
, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the
, that the profits of Great Britain from the trade
all its branches, was two millions a year.
ſtamp-act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed
ence of the American colonies on Great Britain.
ingham, and his friends, continued in admini-
; though, during their continuance in power,
were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens
e ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of
Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the trea-
e marquis of Rockingham: the earl of Shel-
in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles
of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, afterwards
, was appointed lord privy ſeal; but that emi-
ance of a peerage, as it removed him from the
tly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed,
nt was not of any long continuance, and ſundry
. C. Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great
, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both
arliament; but on his death, the place of chan-
was ſupplied by lord North, who afterwards
e treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendancy in

Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time re-
over to England, and again became an object of
imits of our work will not permit us to enter into
cting the proſecution of this gentleman, and the
concerning him: for theſe we muſt refer to our
ell known that verdicts were found againſt him
h Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Eſſay on
ffered a long impriſonment of two years, and
each; that he diſplayed great abilities during
iniſtry, and was choſen a member for the county
8th of March, 1768. He was alſo again expelled

for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a let
publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the
the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had
ed to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of
Fields, their calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, an
them *effectually*, if their ſhould be occaſion. In the vo
pulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſufferi
ment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ
to be iſſued for the election of a member for the cou
dleſex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted only
popularity, which was alſo much augmented by the ſpirit
which on every occaſion he diſplayed. Before his expul
been choſen an alderman of London; and on the 16th
1769, he was re-elected, at Brentford, member for the co
dleſex, without oppoſition. The return having been made
it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled tha
incapable of being elected a member of that parliamen
election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new w
another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by th
and the election was again declared void by the houſe o
After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel,
recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he
in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and d
ſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the w
of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentlem
yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him o
election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for
236. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election, it
in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have b
a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the
of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſin
of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel in its
latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament; but this wa
groſs a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited
neral diſcontent, and loud complaints were made againſt
part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired
1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Mid
was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Midd
ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſe
the year 1775, he executed the office of lord-mayor of the
don; and was afterwards elected to the lucrative office of c
of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord No
niſtration, on Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, ord
ſolutions of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for
of Middleſex were ordered to be expunged from the journ
houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body
of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that, in c
of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, gener
were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch wa
to the unlawful ſeizure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received wit
in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily ne
were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though, bef

eſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownal, a gentle-
vith the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the
1767, " It is a fact which this houſe ought to be
xtent, that the people of America, univerſally,
ly, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax
any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare
eir own election." He added, " this claim muſt
ough it was only the pretences of party leaders
ough it were only the viſions of ſpeculative en-
were the mere ebullition of a faction which
h it were only temporary and partial :—it is the
led maxim of every man of buſineſs in the coun-
d the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame
laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c.
to be paid by the colonies, for the purpoſe of
e government. About two years after, it was
l theſe duties, excepting that on tea ; but as it
e duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great
in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute,
duties anſwered no purpoſe while that on tea re-
ingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between
l the colonies.

e Eaſt-India company to become inſtrumental in
in America, an act was paſſed, by which they
their teas, duty free, to all places whatſoever.
rdingly freighted with teas for the different co-
who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal
is was conſidered by the Americans as a ſcheme
cumvent them into a compliance with the reve-
ve the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was
at if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody
ociations, or other meaſures, would be ſufficient
onſumption; and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that
bliſhed in one inſtance, it would be reſtrained
being generally prevalent in America, it was
ſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes
ver hazard. Accordingly, three ſhips laden with
e port of Boſton, in December, 1773, a number
e diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe
s diſcharged their whole cargoes of tea into the
other damage, or offering any injury to the cap-
ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a
nd a few other places; but in general, the com-
f that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh
d the maſters of the tea-veſſels, from an appre-
rned again to England with their cargoes. At
e tea was landed under the cannon of a man of
the ſervice of government there were obliged to
ked up from uſe. And in South Corolina ſome
iver, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp
riſhed.

America excited ſo much indignation in the go-
at, on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed
n-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and
Another act was ſoon after paſſed " for better

regulating the government in the province of Maſſachuſ
deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that prov
by the charter of king William; to take the whole execu
of the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of
judges, and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs,
and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be
the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed,
ſidered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconſtitutional, e
governor of Maſſachuſetts Bay to ſend perſons accuſed
to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time af
likewiſe paſſed "for making more effectual proviſion f
ment of the province of Quebec," which excited a grea
England and America. By this act, a legiſlative council
liſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, ex
which council was to be appointed by the crown, the o
during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman-c
were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a tria
were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws,
jury, in criminal; and the popiſh clergy were inveſte
right to their tithes from all who were of their own rel
ſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was app
ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient; but the ki
ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdictio
think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec
extended, by the act, thouſands of miles at the back o
lonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better
was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country.

The meaſures of government reſpecting America had
exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town meet
in every part of the continent, in which they avowed the
oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of
Agreements were entered into in the different colonies
ſubſcribers bound themſelves, in the moſt ſolemn mann
preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe w
tain from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt, 1774, u
port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repeal
lony of Maſſachuſetts Bay fully reſtored to its chartered
tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to incr
in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, includ
extent of the country which ſtretches from Nova Scotia t
appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which
at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774.
cordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fif
preſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies, of New Hampſhir
Maſſachuſetts Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence p
Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Pennſy
lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virgi
Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5) delegates; Geor
acceded to the confederacy, and ſent deputies to the Co

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they en
ſeveral greivances, and ſolicited his majeſty to grant them
and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the pe
Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another
tants of the province of Quebec. The congreſs broke
of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſho

th of May following, unleſs the grievances of hould be redreſſed before that time; and they colonies to chooſe deputies, as ſoon as poſſible,

ts, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliar putting a ſtop to the commotions which unrica. The earl of Chatham, who had been long n, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of Ameri- made a motion for immediately recalling the meaſure which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might y. He alleged that this conciliatory meaſure d, as a mark of affection and good-will on our aloufy and apprehenſion on the other, and in- happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion jority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which or ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. the houſe of commons for promoting an ac- with a ſimilar fate. The number of his ma- to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for of the New England colonies, and to prohibit s of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, ouſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of g the exerciſe of the right of taxation in Ameiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, s, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of t. This motion was carried, and afterwards rovincial aſſemblies: but it was rejected by ſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite m the congreſs to the king was ordered by his the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and nts, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe f the colonies, in ſupport of that petition; but ected; it being ſaid, that the American conbly, and that therefore no petition could be parliament with propriety.

April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn in at Lexington and Concord in New England. general Gage ſending a body of troops to deſs that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in tromely haraſſed, and forced to a quick retreat; 170 wounded, and about 20 made priſoners. nputed not to have loſt more than 60, including mediately after, numerous bodies of the Ameritown of Boſton, in which general Gage and his colonies they prepared for war with the utmoſt almoſt every-where put to the exportation of ental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of , and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed lutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an ment of a large paper currency for its payment. llation of "The United Colonies of America," realiſing the nominal value of this currency.

They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſher any kinds of proviſions; and, to render this order the more ef ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, wh retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amou about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderoga and Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man ther ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of ſtores. The force of Great Britain in America was now aug by the arrival at Boſton from England of the generals How goyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the nental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they v few days after, that the compact between the crown and the pe Maſſachuſetts Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter liam and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new govern electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according powers contained in their original charters.

Our limits will not permit us here to relate, as in the ga all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention moſt important tranſactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boſton, in which the troops had the advantage, but with the loſs of 226 killed, and mo 800 wounded, including many officers. After this action, the cans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite their ſide of Charleſtown neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſe veſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About thi the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired ſiderable experience in the command of different bodies of provi during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which ſtyled themſelves, "The Repreſentatives of the United Colon North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſ "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; f protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſ the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſha removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was ſen the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to ſ ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. P late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American dep ment; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer w be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give an anſwer to this p tion, for near three millions of people, by their repreſentatives, tributed exceedingly towards farther exaſperating the minds of Americans. It was a raſh and unhappy determination of the cabi council; and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if highly criminal. An addreſs now alſo was publiſhed, by the congr to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

ry measures were adopted, hostilities still con-
ion was set on foot by the Americans against
were induced by an extraordinary commission
on, the governor of Canada; by which he was
and arm the Canadians, to march out of the
tion of the other colonies, and to proceed even
gainst all those whom he should deem rebels and
The American expedition against Canada was
chard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable
derable military skill, on whom the congress
brigadier-general. On the 31st of December,
to gain possession of Quebec by storm, but was
om a battery, as advancing in the front of his
dangerously wounded; about sixty of their men
ed, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers
eir camp, and retired about three miles from
was for some months converted into a blockade.
eceiving considerable reinforcements and sup-
n England, in May 1776, Arnold was obliged
retreat: Montreal, Chamblée, and St. John's,
anada recovered by the king's troops.
tions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to
of provisions: the town was bombarded by the
l Howe, who now commanded the king's troops;
pwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to
k for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity
ores behind. The town was evacuated on the
nd general Washington immediately took posses-
of July following, the congress published a so-
hich they assigned their reasons for withdrawing
he king of Great Britain. In the name, and by
habitants of the united colonies, they declared
nd of right ought to be, "free and indepen-
were absolved from all allegiance to the Bri-
all political connection between them and the
ain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free
they had full power to levy war, conclude
es, establish commerce, and do all other acts and
dent states may of right do." They likewise
onfederation and perpetual union between the
hich they assumed the title of "The United

empt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker,
l Clinton, upon Charlestown in South Carolina.
bly defended by the Americans under general
mmodore and general were obliged to retire, the
lained considerable loss; and a twenty-eight gun
und, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and
uch more important and successful attack against
on after made under the command of general
th a large body of Hessians, and a considerable
s, so that his whole force was now extremely for-
as commanded by his brother, vice-admiral lord
neral and the admiral were invested with a power,
ommissioners for granting peace to the colonies,"

of granting pardon to those who would lay down their arms. The offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. attack upon the town of New York seems to have been expected provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner were able. On Long Island, near New York, the Americans had a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. neral Howe first landed on Staten Island, where he met with no sition; but early in the morning of the 22d of August, a detach made by the British troops upon Long Island, and towards noon fifteen thousand were landed. They had greatly the advantage Americans, by their superior skill and discipline, and being better vided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation the American passes were far from being properly secured. Some and skirmishes happened between them during several successive in which the British troops engaged their enemies with great and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves overpowered, they at length resolved to quit the island; and ge Washington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in he displayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the rican troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different were their baggage, stores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed water-side, embarked, and passed over a long ferry to New York, such extraordinary silence and order, that the British army did not ceive the least motion, and were surprised in the morning at find the American lines abandoned, and seeing the last of their rear-guard their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been so rounded by the British troops, and the latter had displayed such s rior military skill, that it was a subject of wonder that the greatest of the American army should be able to effectuate their retreat. In different actions previous to this, the loss of the Americans had very considerable. Upwards of a thousand of them were taken soners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior cers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be greater; they lost also five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance found in their different redoubts and forts on the island; while whole loss of the British troops, if faithfully published, did not amo to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now soon abandoned, and the royal army obta some other considerable advantages over the Americans, at the W Plains, taking Fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Lee with a great quantity of stores; which losses obliged the Amer general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a dist of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton an Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode Island: and the British tr covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. their forts were taken, the time of the greatest part of their army to was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were destitute state, with a well-clothed and disciplined army pursuing. general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washing it has been maintained there would have been an end to the cont but this delay gave time for volunteer reinforcements of gentlem merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washing who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storm, ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprise brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of

om he repaſſed the river; having alſo taken
s of braſs cannon, and near one thouſand ſtand
ter this ſurpriſe of the Heſſians, and depoſiting
ton recroſſed the river to reſume his former
British troops collected in force to attack him,
norning; but the Americans, by a happy ſtroke
the plan. Waſhington, to diſguiſe his retreat
ne of fires in front of his camp, as an indication
d to conceal what was acting behind them.
ly from the ground with his baggage and ar-
ous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-
ng, carried the Britiſh poſt at that place, and
iſoners on his return to Delaware, juſt as the
were under arms, and proceeding to attack
is former poſition.

ember 1777, two actions of ſome importance
nies of general Howe and general Waſhington,
ner had the advantage; and ſoon after the city
ed to the king's troops. But an expedition,
een concerted, of invading the northern colo-
oved extremely unſucceſsful. The command
een given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a
He ſet out from Quebec with an army of near
ordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined
Indians. For ſome time he drove the Ame-
made himſelf maſter of Ticonderoga; but at
h difficulties, and was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed
Gates and Arnold, that after two ſevere ac-
bers fell, general Burgoyne, and his army of
o lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.
ir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made
gainſt the Americans up the North River;
ſters of ſeveral forts; but the Americans com-
dition, and ſome others, the Britiſh troops had
s and towns, particularly Eſopus, and carried
ot uſual among civiliſed nations. Theſe de-
ed the averſion of the Americans to the Britiſh
lready taken a deep root. General Howe ſoon
d, and the command of the Britiſh army in
general Clinton: but it was now found ne-
adelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated
ork, in June 1778. The Britiſh troops were
by the Americans; but the retreat was ſo
American general, Lee, behaved ſo ill, that
t to 300 killed and wounded.
happy war between Great Britain and the colo-
conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition
rench court thought this a favourable oppor-
power of Great Britain. Some French officers
erican ſervice; and on the 6th of February,
e was concluded at Paris, between the French
United Colonies; and in this treaty it was de-
and direct end of it was "to maintain effectu-
nty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited,

of the United States of North America, as well in mat
ment as of commerce.

The parliament and people of Great Britain now beg
neral alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American wa
1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George J
arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his maje
diſputes between the mother country and the colonies.
too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the
have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected
and the congreſs poſitively refuſed to enter into any
Britiſh commiſſioners, if the independency of the U
America were not previouſly acknowledged, or the Br
armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe re
complied with, the war continued to be carried on w
moſity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in t
the revolted colonies, occaſioned hoſtilities to be comm
the two nations, though without any formal declaration
ſide. On the 27th of June, 1778, the Licorne and I
two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel
immediately iſſued by the French court for making
ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a ba
off Breſt, between the Engliſh fleet, under the comm
Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of
liers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line
of 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hou
was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide,
fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of
were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the l
is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engage
much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becau
tory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt
thrown upon ſir Hugh Palliſer, vice-admiral of the
charged in a newſpaper with miſconduct and diſobed
Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him
admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from t
reports that were propagated relative to him. This the a
which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; an
ſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the Board o
which he was himſelf a member) articles of accuſation
Keppel, though, for many months after the action, he h
act under him, and profeſſed the greateſt reſpect to hi
conduct ſo extraordinary was very generally and ſevere
the lords of the Admiralty ordered a court-martial to
trial of admiral Keppel. When the court-martial wa
Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner
Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court
cious and ill-founded." But ſir Hugh Palliſer being aft
another court-martial, partly compoſed from ſome of th
own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; his diſobedie
ral's orders was conſidered as being occaſioned by the c
his ſhip; a ſlight cenſure only was paſſed on him for
ſtate of his ſhip known to the admiral; and his cond
ſpects was declared to have been meritorious.

lso an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh
the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome
ie command of monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th
he former obliged the latter to retire; and on the
lowing Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of
e courſe of the ſame year, the iſland of St. Lucia,
as taken from the French; but the latter made
Dominica, and the following year they obtained
nds of St. Vincent and Grenada. In September
taing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah
d a conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſ-
cans. The French and Americans ſoon made an
ne Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command
ut the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the
ns were driven off with great loſs, and D'Eſtaing
ndoned the coaſt of America. At the cloſe of the
French ſhips of war, and merchant ſhips, were
dies, by a fleet under the command of ſir Hyde

f the French court, Spain was at length brought to
n the war againſt England. One of the firſt enter-
paniards engaged was the ſiege of Gibraltar, which
garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of
to that of France, now become extremely for-
mbined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride almoſt tri-
ſh Channel. So great were their armaments, that
no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion;
ture to make an experiment of that kind; and after
ne in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their
ffecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780,
odney, who had a large fleet under his command,
ſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal
s, with a number of trading veſſels under their con-
ys after, the ſame admiral engaged, near cape St.
eet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line, and two
Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips
ied into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore,
erwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70
nen, was alſo blown up in the action. In April and
kewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the
dmiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part
g previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and
er the count de Guichen; but none of theſe actions
as any ſhip taken on either ſide. In July follow-
took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from
on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France
Engliſh Eaſt-Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant
Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete
made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of
ch a prize never before entered the harbour of

y, 1780, ſir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of
Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt earl Corn-
ry ſignal victory over general Gates in that province,
houſand American priſoners were taken.

Soon after major-general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the r
made his eſcape to New York, and was made a brigadier-genera
royal ſervice. Major André, who negotiated this deſertion, a
concerting meaſures with him for betraying the important poſt o
Point into the hands of the Engliſh, was taken in the American
in his return to New York, and, being conſidered as a ſpy, ſu
death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens
were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occaſioned much d
tent in the nation, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks
neceſſity of public economy. Meetings were therefore held in ſe
counties of the kingdom, at the cloſe of the year 1779, and the b
ning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders
preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons
ing the evils which the profuſe expenditure of the public money
ſioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the g
ances ſtated in the petitions; but nothing important was effected.
miniſtry ſoon found means to maintain their influence in parliame
diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned ſome diſunion among the pop
leaders; the ſpirit which had appeared among the people, by d
ſubſided; and various cauſes at length conſpired to bring the g
part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of
niſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the
diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeare
this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age
which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very
valent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving
"majeſty's ſubjects, profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain pe
"ties and diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th ye
"the reign of king William III." This act was generally approve
men of ſenſe and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt
piſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give
tle offence to perſons of any claſs in England; but in Scotland it exc
much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. R
lutions were formed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to
piſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſe
ſeveral papiſts demoliſhed in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion
bigotry at length reached England; a number of perſons aſſemb
themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliam
for a repeal of the late act in favour of the papiſts, and they aſſu
the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation. It was then reſolved, in o
to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended
great numbers of petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement
iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon.

Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this vi
on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence th
proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commo
where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of
day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſul
and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob aſſembled the ſame evenin
by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another
miſh chapel in Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſh
A party of the guards were then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the further p

s, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of
s committed to Newgate, escorted by the military.
wing, another mob assembled, and destroyed a
be-maker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they
ouse, and three dwelling-houses, in the same place,
nish priests, with a valuable library of books, and
inia-street, Ratcliff-highway. They also destroyed
niture of sir George Saville, one of the most re-
ingdom, because he had brought in the bill in fa-
On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about
, and behaved so tumultuously, that both houses
journ. In the evening, a most daring and violent
force open the gates of Newgate, in order to re-
were confined there: and the keeper having re-
eys, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in
rt of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of
and more than three hundred prisoners made their
n joined the mob. A committee of the Protestant
lated hand-bills, requesting all true protestants to
s to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable de-
of them stept forth, notwithstanding their boasted
ish the flames they had occasioned: violence, tu-
n, still continued. The Protestant Association, as
to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by
y; and their new confederates were animated by
and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the
ield, and sir John Fielding, and several other pri-
troyed the same evening. The following day the
, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, some
al private houses of the papists, and other build-
by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others
part of the metropolis exhibited violence and dis-
onflagrations.

ordinary scenes, there was a shameful inactivity in
ondon, and in most of the other magistrates of the
neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to
l to be only attentive to the preservation of their
the royal palace. The magistrates, at the begin-
clined giving any orders to the military to fire upon
at length, as all property began to be insecure, men
o see the necessity of vigorous opposition to the ri-
of troops were brought to the metropolis from many
an order was issued, by the authority of the king in
litary to act without waiting for directions from the
d to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumul-
he people." The troops exerted themselves with
pression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of
led, many were apprehended, who were afterwards
for felony*, and the metropolis was at length re-
tranquillity. The manner in which these tumults
he operations of the military, without any authority
strate, however necessary from the peculiar circum-

on was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high trea-

be lamented conteſt, as could ſcarcely be overlooked, even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly, on the firſt of March 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of the war againſt the American colonies. This was a moſt important event, it rendered a change of meaſures and of councils abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry ſaw the danger to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally; and feeling the preſſure of the public burthens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

The firſt buſineſs of the new miniſtry was the taking meaſures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were alſo directed to acquaint the congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more deſirable to the nation. A ſeries of loſſes agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French were too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated. The new miniſtry had ſuperſeded admiral Rodney, and intended to have proſecuted the inquiry into his tranſactions at St. Euſtatius; but this victory ſilenced all complaints, and procured him the dignity of an Engliſh peer.

May 18th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor: and the formidable attack, on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants in them. The garriſon was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this were few, and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French, ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions,

nd enabled Hyder Ally to withſtand, with various
s of ſir Eyre Coote, and his troops.
marquis of Rockingham, on the 1ſt of July, occa-
motion in the cabinet, and leſſened the hopes
ed of important national benefits from the new ad-
Shelburne ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the
aid, without the knowledge of his colleagues.
eace between Great Britain and France*, Great Bri-
e all her poſſeſſions before the war, the iſland of
t Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with
the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in
ependencies on Pondicherry and Karical; it agreed
ands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and
with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore,
f Surat, in the Eaſt Indies, which had been con-
nch during the war. To prevent diſputes about
ewfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French
d begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and,
north, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the
reat Britain renounced every claim by former trea-
the demolition of Dunkirk. France, on the other
to Great Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the
iſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Mont-
eed Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing
ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the
llies of each ſtate in the Eaſt Indies were to be in-
he pacification; but if they were averſe to peace,
r ſide was to be given to them.
h Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power Eaſt
ded Weſt Florida and Minorca, which Spain had
r. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſun-
future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould
utting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict
iver Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the
vers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to
Providence and the Bahamas to Great Britain;
etaken before the peace was ſigned.
the United States of America, the king of Great
ed New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſetts Bay, Rhode
ce Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jer-
Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina,
Georgia, to be *free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates*;
heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhed all claims to the
rty, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every
revent all diſputes in future on the ſubject of boun-
ſtates and the remaining provinces of Great Britain,
utely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper
orable clauſes were obtained for the loyaliſts. The
iſſiſſippi to remain open to both parties, as alſo the
ies.
the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe: but at length it
Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomalé in the iſland
French had already taken it; and that the Dutch

*Preliminary articles ſettled January 20, 1783.

ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its depe
the Eaſt Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on
an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in
Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and m
valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150
money. The terms of peace were, to many, a ſubject
gret; but, had the war continued, it would have been nec
borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a mil
would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions, a
capital of the public debt, according to the uſual mode
The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the h
by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of comm
jority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons thus enliſting under the b
*famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly in
niſterial revolution to be near at hand, unleſs the cabinet
new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers we
withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mention
ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord o
on April the 2d, 1783. All plans of reformation in publ
for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne propoſe
to be laid aſide. Every thing went on juſt as the co
niſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament h
for new regulating the government of the Eaſt-India Comp
commercial affairs and territories,—a plan of which bill, i
fate, we have already given in our account of that trad
This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on Decem
majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabine
houſes of parliament.

A royal meſſage was ſent between twelve and one of th
the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to ſe
their office immediately; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the du
as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into
departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſinc
acceſſion.

Some leading independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled t
terpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had
ment and the country with diſtraction; but their endea
what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united
proved unſucceſsful.

At laſt, after ſtrong and repeated conteſts between the t
the 25th of March, 1784, a proclamation was iſſued for
parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the deſire
of a great part of the kingdom. Juſt at that critical pe
ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, wh
many ſuſpicions, as if done by more than ordinary felon
farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently made.
May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons ch
wall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their ſpeaker. T
his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne. A very
ſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe o
ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned
Mr. Pitt's favour; for on May 24th, on a diviſion of th

eech, the numbers for it, without any alterare 282 againſt 114.

his famous Eaſt-India bill the 5th of July, the which we have given in our account of that comvations upon it.

iamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. atroduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the The plan was to give one hundred members to the kingdom, and to extend the right of election houſand perſons, who, by the exiſting proviſions from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt btained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, ir repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the of commons would remain the ſame.—After a length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; d the ayes 174.

neaſures agitated by parliament in 1786, the plan ng fund, and employing a million annually for debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. ed by the yearly income of the ſtate exceeding its expenditure, by the ſum of 900,000l. which million by means in no wiſe burthenſome to the , which had the concurrence of every man who n of the ſtate from the accumulated load of debt into a law, which created commiſſioners for of this valuable act into execution.

ery important tranſaction of the preſent times, Warren Haſtings, late governor-general of Benebruary, 1786, Mr. Burke, who took the lead in ſive buſineſs, explained the mode of proceeding t; and, in the courſe of the ſeſſion, moved for a ground and ſubſtantiate his charges upon. Theſe r. Haſtings heard at the bar of the houſe of com- The debates which aroſe on the ſubject termiat certain of the charges contained matter of imate governor-general of Bengal. Mr. Haſtings ed by the commons at the bar of the houſe of pied a conſiderable portion of eight ſeſſions of e 25th of April, 1795, the lord chancellor pro- of the peers in the following words:—"Mr. ords, after a very minute inveſtigation, have accharges of high crimes and miſdemeanors pre- the commons, and every article thereof; and diſcharged, upon paying your fees."

which, for length of time, exceeded any in the aving laſted ſeven years and three months.

f the cuſtoms and exciſe was the moſt important of attention in the year 1787. This was a meaur and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to ing and ſimplifying the intricacies attendant on s, and the payment of duties; a regulation rmanently effected.

by this country, and other European nations, a, for the purpoſe of purchaſing negro ſlaves, to ultivation of the Weſt-India iſlands and certain

parts of the continent of America, does not appear, till of late ... to have been conſidered with that general attention which ſuch a ... rice might have been expected to excite; a practice ſo abhorrent ... nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. ... firſt public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a ſtop ... traffic, was by the Quakers of the ſouthern provinces of America. ... Great Britain the ſame ſociety appears alſo to have taken the lead, ... after the example of their American brethren, preſented a ſimilar ... tition to the parliament of this kingdom.

The cauſe ſoon after became extremely popular. A great ... of pamphlets were publiſhed upon this ſubject: ſeveral eminent ... vines recommended it from the pulpit, and in printed diſcourſes; ... petitions were preſented to the legiſlature from the two univerſ... and from ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable towns and corporations ... kingdom.

His majeſty's miniſters thought it proper to inſtitute an inquiry, ... fore a committee of the privy-council, into the facts and allegations ... tained in the repreſentations of both parties. The firſt public ... that was taken of the ſubject was an information communicated by ... Wilberforce, ſoon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention ... bring forward a meaſure reſpecting the ſlave-trade. That ... being much indiſpoſed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of ... 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following reſolution: ... "That this houſe will, early in the next ſeſſion of parliament, proceed ... to take into conſideration the circumſtances of the ſlave-trade, ... plained of in the petitions preſented to the houſe, and what may ... to be done thereupon;" which was unanimouſly carried. Afterwards, ... the 21ſt of May, ſir William Dolben moved the houſe for leave to bring in ... a bill to regulate the tranſportations of the natives of Africa to the ... Britiſh colonies in the Weſt-Indies*.

By the bill now propoſed, the number of ſlaves to be tranſported in ... any ſhip was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing ... nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary ... relief, till ſome more permanent expedient could be deviſed by the legiſ... giſlature. Having paſſed through the commons, it was carried up to ... the lords, where it alſo paſſed, after having received ſeveral amend... ments; ſome of which being thought to interfere with the privileges ... of the lower houſe, a new bill was brought in, which paſſed both houſes ... and received the royal aſſent.

The year 1788 being the hundredth anniverſary of the glorious revo... lution in 1688, the fourth of November being the birth-day of ...

* That there was a neceſſity for adopting this propoſition, will moſt clearly appear ... from the facts which were proved in the courſe of the debate. It appeared that ... feet ſix inches in length, and ſixteen inches in breadth, was the ſcare of room allowed ... an average to each ſlave. The lower deck of the veſſels was entirely covered ... bodies, and the ſpace between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which ... amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform alſo covered with ... Five perſons in every hundred periſhed, at the loweſt computation, in a voyage of ... weeks' continuance; which, according to the moſt accurate eſtimates of human ... was ſeventeen times the uſual rate of mortality. It was indeed much more, ... in the eſtimate of mortality, perſons of every age were included, while in an African ... voyage the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ... ruinous nature of the trade in the moſt favourable circumſtances; for, in the voyages to ... the more diſtant parts of Africa, the mortality was ſtated to be twice as great; and ... conſequently, thirty-four perſons periſhed at the loweſt eſtimation, for one that would ... have died in the ordinary courſe of nature.

t, under Providence, who completed that event,
onth being the anniverſary of his landing, were
eties in London, and other parts of the kingdom,
but with devotion and thankſgiving.
four years, which had elapſed ſince the com-
vereign and the nation over the "Coalition,"
e conduct of a miniſter, who had not yet attained
riſen from a ſtate of unexampled depreſſion, to
among the European kingdoms.
c felicity, the nation was ſuddenly alarmed in
y the reports of his majeſty being attacked with
gerous illneſs. The preciſe nature of it was for
ned and unexplained, even to thoſe whoſe reſi-
ould have enabled them to obtain early and an-
Meanwhile, Fame augmented the evil; and the
was believed to have either already taken place,
inevitable.
dually divulged the truth, and changed the appre-
for the ſituation of the king. His diſorder was
llen upon the brain, and to have produced, as
emporary privation of reaſon. A ſpecies of in-
place; though unaccompanied by any of thoſe
ually characteriſe and accompany that unfortu-
m, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their
ſymptoms of confuſion, anarchy, or civil com-
iſter continued to exerciſe, by a general ſubmiſ-
wers delegated to him before the king's indiſpo-
al machine, well conſtructed, and properly or-
derangement or injury whatſoever from this
eparably connected with delay in the tranſac-
ending with foreign courts.
arliament, in conſequence of the preceding pro-
days ſubſequent to theſe extraordinary events.
and curioſity, even if they had not been aided
ope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty,
uced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened
eting in a very conciſe and pathetic manner;
expreſſed his hope that the cauſe would ſpee-
in purſuance of that idea, adviſed an imme-
fortnight. As ſoon as the adjournment was at
claim to the vacant ſceptre in the name and on
apparent, as belonging and devolving to him

he diſcuſſion and deciſion of ſo great and leading
to concluſions unlimited and undefined, as well
nure on which a king of England had origi-
wn; and parliament, rouſed to a ſenſe of the ne-
lf ſolely competent to fill the vacant throne, pro-
t without circumlocution or delay; and having
important preliminary, then decided that the
be invited and requeſted to accept the regency
ons.
mber elapſed in theſe conteſts, and the year 1789
moſt gloomy preſages. Mutual aſperity and re-
ry debate. No appearances of convaleſcence or

recovery, ſo ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manif themſelves in the malady of the king.

A ſecond examination of the phyſicians who had attended hi jeſty during the courſe of his diſorder, which took place before a mittee of the houſe of commons, and which was certainly not ducted on the part of oppoſition with either delicacy or judg tended to throw very little light on the great object of public in --the probable duration of this afflicting malady.

A very ſhort period, probably not exceeding three days, mu completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the ſove to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the ſceptre, though diminiſhed influence, to his ſon. The members of adminiſtration on the point of reſigning their charges, and the new miniſtry, alr ſettled, prepared to enter on office; while the Engliſh people, fi attached by every ſenſe of loyalty and affection to their monar well as from gratitude and eſteem to the firſt miniſter, in dejected ſilence looked on, and ſaw the government transferred to others, whatever abilities they might collectively poſſeſs, certainly did enjoy the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of interregnum and misfortune was now arrived; the impending calamity, which had menaced England with the evi a regency, was ſuddenly and unexpectedly diſſipated. The diſo under which the king had ſuffered during three months, and whoſe lence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical ſkill and exertion, dually, but rapidly, ſubſided. Sanity of mind and reaſon reſumed ſeat, and left no trace of their temporary ſubverſion. Time confir the cure, and reſtored to his ſubjects a prince, rendered ſupremely peculiarly dear to them by the recent proſpect and apprehenſion of loſs. The viſion of regency faded and diſappeared, as the ſove came forward to public view, and was totally extinguiſhed by h ſumption of all the regal functions. The demonſtrations of nationa far exceeded any recorded in the Engliſh annals, and were pro more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on ſimilar occa No efforts of deſpotiſm, or mandates of arbitrary power, could produced the illuminations which not only the capital, but a every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in mony of its loyalty; and theſe proofs of attachment were ren and even augmented, on the occaſion of his majeſty's firſt appea in public, and his ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's (on the 23d of A 1789) to return thanks to heaven for his recovery.

Whilſt the ancient government of France was entirely overth and a revolution the moſt unexpected was effected, it is difficult to gine a picture of more complete ſerenity than England preſented. peace with all the world, in the boſom of repoſe, ſhe ſaw her comm and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name e reſpect among the moſt diſtant nations; while many of the grea rounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign wa deſolated by domeſtic troubles. In this happy ſituation, a ſtorm u pectedly and ſuddenly aroſe from a quarter, where it would ſeem no foreſight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. An the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the ſpirit of e cerning and adventurous people had attempted to open ſince the p of 1783, were particularly two, which appeared to promiſe the beneficial returns. The firſt was a whale fiſhery, ſimilar to that w had been carried on for ages near the coaſt of Greenland; but tranſf

ere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the rounded Cape Horn, as well as in the Pacific of a few years, this branch of trade had ap- as found on trial to afford very important ad- ceived any impediments from the vague pre- crown to the ſovereignty of the ſhores waſhed as the ſcene of their exertions.

nterpriſes, original in its own nature, able in its ts execution, and having no precedent for its to countries and to objects almoſt as much un- as to commercial knowledge or experience.

of America, the part of the earth to which this ed, extending northward from California and zen Sea, had been partly explored, and faintly ; but much remained for future enterpriſe and before this diſcovery could be converted to any ity. He had, however, aſcertained the exiſt- and he had received from the barbarous na- tabliſhed a ſpecies of barter, ſome valuable ſpe- nge for European commodities of a far inferior

ng a conſiderable quantity of thoſe rare and e of which a very advantageous market pre- in China, was the leading inducement to the ed in the expedition.

iews, and having received the moſt affirmative of government previous to their departure, five om London in 1785, and the two ſucceeding eſſels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived ſafely of America. The ſanguine expectations, which f effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities fully and ſpeedily realiſed. Cargoes of the fineſt l ſold to the Chineſe, even under great commer- nd pecuniary impoſitions, at ſo high a price as d enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a le from Bengal; and two veſſels were ſucceſſively anges to the ſame coaſt in the year 1786. A fac- Nootka Sound, a port ſituated in the fiftieth de- de, on the ſhore of America. Poſſeſſion of it was name of the ſovereign and crown of England ; concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring f land was purchaſed from one of them, on which oceeded to form a ſettlement, and to conſtruct ing bore the appearance of a riſing colony, and ſources of commerce and advantage.

inciple of the law of nations, upon the eſtabliſhed es, and as being the firſt ſettlers, the Britiſh ad- oubted title to the place in queſtion, is beyond ding this, in the month of May 1789, a Spaniſh las in Mexico, called the Princeſſa, commanded ounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various ring led the greater part of the perſons employed ferent parts of the coaſt, the only Engliſh trading e Sound was the Iphigenia. The Princeſſa was iſh ſnow of 16 guns; and for ſome time, mutual

civilities paſſed between the Spaniards and Engliſh. T
were at length interrupted by an order being ſent to capt
commander of the Iphigenia) to come on board of the P
he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king o
to ſeize all veſſels which he might find upon that coaſt
(capt. Douglas) was his priſoner. In conſequence of t
nez took poſſeſſion of the Iphigenia in the name of his
jeſty, and conveyed the priſoners on both the Spaniſh ſ
were ironed. M. Martinez alſo took poſſeſſion of the ſet
ed the Spaniſh flag, and proceeded to erect various build
he employed, together with his own men, ſome of t
Iphigenia. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas
command of his ſhip; and on repreſenting that he had
of his merchandiſe and other ſtores, M. Martinez gav
ſupply of ſtores and proviſion (for which he took bills o
by means of which, about a fortnight after he was firſ
was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the Engliſh veſſels, the North-
the Argonaut, and the Princeſs-Royal, arriving ſeparat
from their trading voyages, were captured by M. M
crews were made priſoners, and their cargoes ſeized.
tentions, the crew of the North-Weſt-America were ſen
two other veſſels with their crews were ſent to Blas in
ſome Chineſe, who had been brought to the ſettlement
were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the North-Weſt-America, ſent to China, no auth
has been received; but on the arrival of the two veſſel
repreſentation of their caſe having been made to the Spa
the ſhips were reſtored (on the officers giving ſecurit
the governor, ſhould it be proved they were lawful pri
were furniſhed with proviſions, ſtores, and money, to c
reſume their voyage.

Of theſe tranſactions only a partial, vague, and uncirc
count was known by his majeſty's miniſters till the 3
1790, when captain Mears preſented his memorial to
This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very d
from that which had been previouſly received. Within
ter the affair was communicated, the moſt active and fo
parations were made, a poſitive demand of preliminary
reſtitution was ſent to Madrid, and the people of Engla
upon to adopt the national vindication. The firſt com
this buſineſs to the public was by his majeſty's meſſage
on the 5th of May.

An attention to the honour of their country made it th
ſary for our miniſters to call upon the court of Spain itſel
ſatisfaction for an injury committed by an officer acting
mediate commiſſion, and grounded on its pretenſions o
right to the whole continent of America. To this it wa
his catholic majeſty to acknowledge that ſuch an injury
mitted; and this was moſt expreſsly declared and ſigned
Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his ca
at Madrid, the 24th July, 1790. The acknowledgment
was an expreſſion which implied a conceſſion that the c
had no right to uſe force in preventing Britiſh ſubjects
the coaſts in queſtion for the purpoſes of trade and ſettlem

aiting with painful anxiety for the determination depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the f appealing to the ſword for the vindication of our f the juſtice of our cauſe, and confidently looking able and happy termination of a conteſt originat- ceedings and unfounded claims of the court of eable news arrived that a convention was agreed tannic majeſty and the king of Spain, and ſigned h of October, 1790, by their plenipotentiaries, Al- ſq. on the part of his Britannic majeſty, and by ica on that of his catholic majeſty; which was court of Spain, and exchanged with Mr. Fitz- majeſty's ratification on the 22d of November, f the Eſcurial, by his catholic majeſty's miniſter. enſe attending the naval and military armaments, raiſe not merely the intereſt of the debt recently nguiſh the principal itſelf, in the ſpace of four nting to about three millions ſterling.

Britain was thus happily reſcued from war in this accident or ambition involved our Indian poſſeſ- blood. At ſo remote a diſtance, it is difficult to auſes and effects; but, as nearly as a diligent in- o collect the truth, we ſhall give it in our hiſtori- country, under which it will more naturally fall.

eration received, in the year 1791, an acceſſion arly grateful to the friends of freedom. It is re- thſtanding the radical freedom of our conſtitution, has been more jealous of their religious eſtabliſh- nave the Roman-catholic ſtates themſelves loaded ve weight of civil penalties thoſe who diſſented in t has for almoſt half a century been the taſk of the t, gradually and cautiouſly, from the code of our ul ſtatutes. They are not yet entirely removed; the peaceful influence of philoſophy ſhall extend en, we have little doubt but all parties will ſee the g the cardinal virtue Charity at the ſhrine of vain the fears and jealouſies of mankind ſhall ſubſide, v years, every trace of perſecution will fade away. h was the grand object of terror in the firſt ages of ſcarcely matter of ſurpriſe that our ſtatute-book h the moſt rigorous and ſanguinary edicts directed of that obnoxious faith; and though in the year ere removed, yet, in the year 1791, in a well-known aſtical Law, not leſs than ſeventy pages were to be ied with the bare enumeration of the penal ſtatutes Roman catholics. Among theſe were ſome of the ure—It was high-treaſon and death to make a con- atholic faith—Severe penalties were enacted on pa- s, by ſome ſtatutes; and by others they were com- eſtabliſhed worſhip, however contrary to their con- n laws ſhould have been framed in times of diffi- times when the church of Rome flouriſhed in all l power, and urged her authority by all the rigours ll the artifices of bigotry, is not ſurpriſing; it is

revolution were (certainly falsely as to the majority) stig
termined republicans; and the act of joining in a conv
on the odious 14th of July was represented as an attem
the British constitution in church and state.

Notwithstanding the pains which had been taken to d
associations, the meeting in London consisted of not l
respectable gentlemen, many of them literary characters
tation.—As, however, rumours had been spread to the d
the meeting, and the populace appeared to collect in
manner round the Crown and Anchor tavern, where th
held, the company dispersed at an early hour.

At Birmingham the causes of discord were more nume
in London. A violent animosity had subsisted for year
high church party and the dissenters of that place; and
controversies which took place between Dr. Priestley an
clergy of Birmingham greatly contributed to increase th

In such circumstances, it is not surprising that the ig
the inhabitants should confound the cause of the Fren
with that of the dissenters, especially since the majority
suasion have, since the Revolution in 1688, been firmly a
Whig system, and since Dr. Priestley, whom the popul
as at the head of the dissenters there, had distinguished h
posing the celebrated pamphlet of Mr. Burke.

A festive meeting in commemoration of the French re
projected at Birmingham on Thursday the 14th of July
preceding Monday, six copies of a most inflammatory
hand-bill, proposing the French revolution as a model t
and exciting them to rebellion, were left by some perso
a public-house. As the contents of this hand-bill were p
ly circulated, they caused some ferment in the town; th
thought it proper to offer a reward of 100 guineas for di
author, printer, or publisher of the obnoxious paper; an
of the meeting intended for the 14th thought it nec
same time to publish an advertisement, explicitly denyi
ments and doctrines of the seditious hand-bill, and di
connexion with its author or publishers.

The views and intentions of the meeting having, howeve
misrepresented, the majority of the gentlemen who project
it advisable to relinquish the scheme: accordingly noti
to that effect; but the intention was revived, and the con
the appointed time to the amount of between eighty and
ingenious Mr. Keir, well known for his great attainments
and other branches of philosophy, and a member of th
church, was placed in the chair.

The gentlemen had scarcely met, before the house was
by a tumultuous crowd, who testified their disapprobati
and groans, and by the shout of "church and king," whic
watch-word on this occasion. At five o'clock the compan
and soon afterwards the windows in the front of the hotel
lished, notwithstanding the appearance and interference
gistrates.

Dr. Priestley did not attend the festival, but dined at home
with a friend (the celebrated Mr. A. Walker, the philosophe
don. After supper they were alarmed with the intelligence t
were assembled at the new dissenting meeting-house (Dr.

3

both the doctor and his house. The rioters soon set
a fire, and nothing remained that could be con-
ting-house shared almost a similar fate. After this
Priestley's house, the doctor and his family having
e to a small distance, where they could distinctly
he mob, and the blows of the instruments which
own the doors. The whole of the doctor's library,
hical apparatus, his manuscripts and papers, were
. The next day this infatuated multitude demo-
ansion of Mr. Ryland, where finding a profusion
scene of intoxication ensued, and several of the
shed in the cellars by suffocation, or by the falling
e country residence of Mr. Taylor, the houses of
genious historian of Birmingham), of Mr. Hum-
, and several others, were destroyed by the resist-
, who continued their depredations until Sunday
oops of the fifteenth regiment of light dragoons
vas then illuminated, and all was acclamation and
nate and infatuated wretches who were taken in
ive were tried at Worcester, and one was found
At Warwick twelve were tried; but only four
death, of whom one was reprieved.—For the ho-
we indulge the earnest hope that the disgraceful
ted at Birmingham in 1791 will never be revived;
ontinent of Europe is unhappily drenched in hu-
nd will remain as conspicuous for its harmony,
y, as for its constitutional freedom and national

he duke of York with the princess-royal of Prussia
h of September, this year, at Berlin; and on the
arrived in England, and were received with pub-
The Prussian monarch gave to the princess a por-
ns. A formal renunciation is made, in favour of
f all right of inheritance arising from the house
ourg, as usually done on the marriages of the
The sum of 40001. sterling is annually assigned for
expenses; and 8000l. annually of jointure, in case
husband. In consequence of this union, and to
ness to live in a style suitable to his exalted sta-
rank of the illustrious personage to whom he was
ted the sum of 18,000l. per annum to his royal
also settled an additional 7000l. per annum upon
revenue; which, with 12,000l. per annum that he
the sum of 37,000l. per annum. The revenues
oprick of Osnaburg are said to amount to about

, 1792, the house of commons, in a committee of
he African slave-trade, came to a resolution, 230
radual abolition. This subject was supported by
Mr. Wilberforce, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, for the
Mr. Dundas took a middle course, and argued
nquishment of a traffic, which every good man
ding and debasing our fellow-creatures to a level
ll, however, met with a different reception in the

The royal proclamation on the 21ſt of May, 1792, againſt ſed writings, which was followed by orders for the embodying the of the kingdom, engaged a conſiderable ſhare of the public atte It had the intended effect, and excited numerous addreſſes, te the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous aſſociations were ed throughout the kingdom againſt republican principles and the or, as the phraſe uſually adopted by ſuch aſſociations was, agai publicans and levellers. To ſay that there were no perſons wh embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to cur in changing the form of the government of this country, w be abſurd; but there appears no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the ca alarm was ſo great, as many imagined, and others at leaſt affected t lieve. The truth lies between the two extremes. The controverſ caſioned by the pamphlets of Meſſrs. Burke and Calonne, and pa larly the writings of Mr. Paine, writings well adapted to the co henſion of the lower claſs of people, and pregnant with pointed re on ſome exiſting abuſes, though, perhaps, with little of ſound p or principle to recommend them, had undoubtedly contributed to der the example of the French revolution in ſome degree contagi But the diſaffected party was neither numerous nor reſpectable. church, the ariſtocracy, and all the moſt opulent of the comm were averſe to any change or innovation whatever. It was amon lower part of the middle claſs of ſociety that democratical opinions chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of verſation, than as a project to be reduced to practice. The violent ceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-diſpoſed of the people, and almoſt diſguſted them with the very name of re From the period of the fatal 10th of Auguſt, the converts from French ſyſtem were numerous; the proſcription and perſecution o emigrants rapidly increaſed the number; and the premeditated treatment and unjuſt death of the king almoſt entirely annihilate ſpirit of republicaniſm in this country. The public wanted only excited to give the moſt forcible proofs of its attachment to a con tion which had ſo wiſely provided againſt the intolerable perfec of tyranny, and the no leſs deplorable miſchiefs of faction.

The firſt diſpoſition manifeſted by Great Britain to break France regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Nether This impediment however might perhaps have been removed, the little diſpoſition which was evinced by Holland to aſſert its ri the excluſive navigation, and from the readineſs of the French to the whole affair to a negociation.

The next exception which was taken by the Engliſh miniſtry w the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French conve to the revolting ſubjects of any monarchical (or, as they ſaid, tyran government, and which was conſtrued into a direct affront to country, and a plot againſt her peace.

The alien bill, which the French complained was an infracti the commercial treaty, was the next cauſe of diſpute; and this c was augmented by the prohibition to export corn to France, wh was freely allowed to the powers at war with that country.

At length, towards the end of January, M. Chauvelin was offi informed by the Engliſh court, that his character and functions, ſo ſuſpended, had entirely terminated by the *fatal* death of the ki

no more any public character here, where his fur-
rbidden. Eight days were allowed for his de-
ification was published in the gazette. M. Maret
xecutive council of France with enlarged powers,
a very advantageous proposals to Great Britain;
nd exactly at the period of M. Chauvelin's dis-
prudent immediately to return home.
das, on the 28th of January, presented to the
nessage from the king, in which his majesty ex-
f making a further augmentation of his forces by
intaining the security and rights of his own do-
ng his allies, and for opposing views of aggran-
n on the part of France. The question in rela-
vas carried by a great majority in favour of mi-

arch, 1794, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woron-
tion at London, on behalf of his Britannic ma-
of Russia, in which their majesties agree to em-
forces in carrying on the "just and necessary
were engaged against France; and they recipro-
*ay down their arms* but by common consent. Not-
emn treaty, Catharine took no active part what-
nother treaty was concluded between his Britannic
of Sardinia, signed at London the 25th of April,
ain engaged to pay 200,000l. per annum to the
d three months in advance. A treaty was likewise
his highness the prince of Hesse-Cassel and his
he former was to furnish 8,000 men for the war,
n return for which, England was to pay 100,000l.
,000l. sterling per annum for six years. In this
n engages to pay the landgrave a sum of money
is slain; so that the more of his men are killed,
money.
perations of the war, we must refer our readers to
e, to the history of which country they most pro-

which have taken place in England and Scotland
and for libellous and dangerous publications, may
ed as strongly characterising the spirit of the times;
ive a concise account of some of the principal of

Thomas Muir, esq. was tried before the high-court
ditious practices. In the indictment, the prisoner
wickedly and feloniously exciting, by means of sedi-
harangues, a spirit of disloyalty and disaffection to
stablished government; of producing and reading
etings a seditious and inflammatory writing called
the Society of United Irishmen in Dublin, to the
oting a Reform in Scotland," tending to produce in
ople an insurrection and opposition to the established
jury being named, Mr. Muir objected to most of
that as the gentlemen, however respectable, were
e Goldsmith's-hall association, and had offered a re-
g those who had circulated what they called seditious
already prejudged him, and were therefore improper

perſons to paſs upon his aſſize; but this objection was
court.

The moſt material witneſs againſt the accuſed was
ſervant to his father: ſhe ſaid that ſhe carried from him
Declaration of Rights, marked with ſome corrections,
ſhe added, that ſhe had heard Mr. Muir talk to the coun
to the ſhop of his father, very often, concerning Paine's
which ſhe heard him ſay was a very good book; that he
dreſſer to purchaſe them, and keep them in his ſhop t
people; that Mr. Muir ſaid, when the reform took plac
member for Calder; that members would then be all
forty ſhillings a day, and that none but honeſt men woul
to keep the conſtitution clean; and that ſhe had cauſed
the ſtreets of Glaſgow to play *ça-ira* at Mr. Muir's deſir

After a trial of ſixteen hours' duration, the jury retu
finding the priſoner *guilty*. The court then proceeded
ſentence, and ordered him to be tranſported beyond th
place as his majeſty, with the advice of his privy-counci
proper, for fourteen years. He was ſoon after ſent t
whence he found means to eſcape in an American veſſel,
riety of extraordinary adventures and eſcapes, if the acc
been received are authentic, arrived in France, where h
with public congratulations, as the martyr of liberty, and
continues.

On the 17th of September, of the ſame year, the rev
mer, an Unitarian clergyman, reſiding at Dundee, wa
circuit court of juſticiary, before lords Eſgrove and Abe
indictment charged him with being preſent at a meetin
dee, denominating itſelf "A Society of the Friends of
that he did there put into the hands of George Mealmak
a ſeditious import, in the form of an addreſs to their frien
citizens, containing, among other ſeditious expreſſions,
words; "You are plunged into a war by a wicked miniſ
pliant parliament, who ſeem careleſs and unconcerned for
the end and deſign of which is almoſt too horrid to relate;
of a whole people merely becauſe they will be free."—W
proceeded to the examination of witneſſes, George Meal
in Dundee, acknowledged himſelf to be the author of the
tion; it appeared, however, that Mr. Palmer had correct
it to be printed, and circulated it. The verdict was retu
day, finding the priſoner guilty; in conſequence of whic
tenced to tranſportation for fourteen years. This gentl
to the hulks with Mr. Muir, and ſailed with him to Bot

On the 21ſt of January, 1794, the two houſes met. Th
the throne enumerated with ſome degree of minuteneſs t
obtained by the allies, and exhorted to a ſpirited proſecuti
and to a reliance on the reſources of the country, and t
our allies, for ultimate ſucceſs. The addreſs to his maj
the parliament agreed to ſupport him in the continuanc
was carried in favour of miniſtry by a very great majorit

In March following, the receſſion of the king of Pr
great cauſe of the allies agitated the political world for
when it was announced that the whole proceeded from h
ſupply his troops from the reſources of his own country,
that he muſt be ſubſidized to enable him to employ his

ing regular government to France. The parlia-
he arguments which were advanced by the mi-
of 2,500,000l. to be granted to his majeſty, to en-
ſtipulations of the treaty lately concluded with
gorous proſecution of the war, and for ſuch exi-
in the year 1794. Notwithſtanding this freſh
onarch ſoon after entirely relinquiſhed the war,
ipation for himſelf and his troops in endeavouring
rections in Poland, which we ſhall particularly
e of the events of that unfortunate country.
, 1794, a meſſage from his majeſty was brought
Mr. ſecretary Dundas, in which he informed them
ractices which had been for ſome time carried on
London, in correſpondence with ſocieties in dif-
ountry, had lately been purſued with increaſed
and had been avowedly directed to the object of
d general convention of the people, in contempt
thority of parliament; that his majeſty had given
books and papers of theſe ſocieties, which were to
ſe; and that it was recommended to the houſe to
purſue ſuch meaſures as were neceſſary in order
cious tendency."
Thomas Hardy, a ſhoemaker in Piccadilly, who
to the London Correſponding Society, and Mr.
cretary to the Society for Conſtitutional Informa-
d, by a warrant from Mr. Dundas, for treaſonable
ooks and papers ſeized. Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr.
eptor to lord Mahon, and Mr. Thelwall, who had
ined the town as a political lecturer, were after-
f the week, arreſted and committed to the Tower,
reaſon.
ng the ſeizure of the papers of theſe ſocieties, they
ealed to the houſe of commons by Mr. Dundas, and
ee of ſecrecy, conſiſting of twenty-one members.
the firſt report of the committee of ſecrecy, with
hich had been formed by theſe ſocieties for hold-
tion of the people, and intimating their ſuſpicions
rms had been collected by theſe ſocieties in order
ong the lower orders of the people, the chancellor
ved " for leave for a bill to empower his majeſty
uch perſons as his majeſty ſuſpected were conſpir-
n and government." By this bill the temporary
*beas Corpus* act is effected. It was carried, on the
a majority of 162.
, 1794, the Britiſh fleet, under the command of
obtained a ſignal victory over that of the French,
ere ſunk, one burnt, and ſix brought into Portſ-

tember a ſpecial commiſſion of oyer and terminer
ſoners confined on a charge of high-treaſon in the
nd on the ſecond of October it was opened at the
nwell, by the lord chief juſtice Eyre, in an ela-
grand jury; and in the courſe of their proceedings
of indictment againſt Thomas Hardy, John Horne
rs; and on the 28th of October, Thomas Hardy,

the late ſecretary to the London Correſponding Soci
his trial at the Old-Bailey. Mr. Wood opened the plea
nine overt acts of high treaſon, with which the priſon
When he had finiſhed, ſir John Scott, the attorney-ger
of nine hours, went into a very minute detail of the
proſecutions for high-treaſon. The counſel for the
proceeded to produce their evidence, which conſiſte
had been found in the cuſtody of different perſons,
the warrant of the privy-council.

Previouſly to the court's breaking up, about twelve
verſation enſued reſpecting the gentlemen of the jury
be diſcharged on their honour: to which Mr. Erſkine,
priſoner, conſented; but the court were of opinion tha
not permit the jury to ſeparate after having been o
The jury were therefore conſigned to the care of the ſh
preparations for their accommodation in the ſeſſions-
previouſly made; and, the next day, the jury having
their accommodations were uncomfortable, and incapa
them the neceſſary reſt, they were provided that eveni
ſubſequent evenings of the trial, with beds at the Humn
Garden.

The 29th, 30th, and 31ſt of October, were employed
tion of evidence for the crown, both documentary and
ter took up great part of the morning of November
finiſhed, Mr. Erſkine, in behalf of the priſoner, addreſ
the ſpace of ſix hours. The remainder of the day was
examination of witneſſes for the priſoner; many of w
an excellent character.

The court adjourned at half paſt twelve on Sunday Mo
ber 2, till the Monday following, when the counſel fo
proceeded with their evidence; after which Mr. Gibbs lik
the court in his favour. He was followed by the ſolic
reply. The next day the ſolicitor-general concluded his
lord-preſident commenced the ſumming up the eviden
reſumed the following day, and finiſhed about noon.
retired, and, after having been abſent two hours and a
and delivered their verdict—Not guilty.

On Monday, November 17, the court again met, and
the trial of John Horne Tooke, eſq. on the ſame charge of
This trial was conducted in the ſame manner as the p
ended on the Saturday following about eight in the even
jury retired, and, in a few minutes, returned with their
guilty.

On Monday the 6th of December, the court again met,
guſtus Bonney, Jeremiah Joyce, Stewart Kyd, and Tho
(who much to his honour, though not in cuſtody, ha
himſelf as ſoon as the bill was found againſt him by the
were arraigned and a jury was ſworn in; when the att
informed the court that he ſhould decline going into
againſt the priſoners, as it was the ſame that had been ac
two late trials, and on which, after the moſt mature co
verdict of acquittal had been given. The priſoners w
acquitted and diſcharged.

Mr. Thelwall was then put to the bar, and, after a trial
acquitted.

emorable trials, the iſſue of which the country
oft agitation and anxious ſuſpenſe, until the juſt
of an honeſt jury had defended the law of the
rous innovation of conſtructive treaſons.
, 1795, were celebrated the nuptials of his royal
Wales, with her highneſs the princeſs Caroline
ich occaſion a bill was paſſed for enabling his
able eſtabliſhment to his royal highneſs, and for
ation of his debts. Another bill was likewiſe
future princes of Wales from incurring debts.
f this year, a dreadful and oppreſſive ſcarcity per-
The price of the half-peck loaf roſe in the me-
wn; and in ſome other places it was ſtill higher.
rred of perſons who periſhed through abſolute
ere every-where in the utmoſt diſtreſs. A com-
commons was appointed to conſider of the high
drew up, and entered into, an engagement to uſe
nd reduce the conſumption of wheat in their
ſſible expedient. This engagement was ſigned
ons in the miniſtry, and a great number of the
ſes.
ober, the king opened the ſeſſion of parliament.
aſſembled, who at length became riotous, loudly
r!—No Pitt!—No famine!" A few voices, it is
exclaim—"Down with George!"—In the park,
cent to Weſtminſter-hall, ſome ſtones and other
nine of which, it is aſſerted, ſtruck the ſtate-
em, which was ſuſpected to have proceeded from a
ſtreet, near the abbey, perforated one of the win-
cular aperture; from which circumſtance it was
have been a bullet diſcharged from an air-gun,
e of deſtruction; but no bullet was found; and
either touched the king nor the noblemen who at-
majeſty returned from the houſe through the park,
e Horſe-guards were ſhut to exclude the mob, this
fficient to prevent a renewal of the outrages; and
own at the carriage as it paſſed oppoſite to Spring-
r the king had alighted at St. James's, the popu-
e carriage; and, in its way through Pall-Mall to
oft demoliſhed.
theſe daring inſults and outrages, a proclamation
reward of one thouſand pounds to any perſon or
oſe actually concerned in doing any act by which
ſon was immediately endangered, who ſhould give
any of the authors and abettors in that outrage
d and brought to juſtice.
e apprehended on ſuſpicion of having inſulted his
n, named Kyd Wake, a journeyman printer, was
found guilty of hooting, groaning, and hiſſing at
atenced to ſtand in the pillory at Glouceſter, on a
priſoned and kept to labour, during five years,
ouſe at Glouceſter; and, at the expiration of his
ſecurity for one thouſand pounds for his good
rs.
after an addreſs had been voted teſtifying their in-

dignation and abhorrence at the daring outrages offered to his
two bills were immediately brought in, the one by lord Grenvil
upper houſe, entitled, "An act for the ſafety and preſervatio
majeſty's perſon and government againſt treaſonable and ſeditio
tices and attempts;" and the other by Mr. Pitt, in the houſe
mons, entitled, "An act to prevent ſeditious meetings and aſſe
Theſe bills were vigorouſly oppoſed in both houſes, though ou
uſual minorities, in point of numbers. Petitions, with very n
ſignatures, were likewiſe preſented againſt them from every pa
kingdom. They, however, paſſed, and are now become a pa
law of the land.

On the 8th of December, a meſſage from his majeſty was
down to the houſe of commons, ſignifying a diſpoſition to ent
negociation with France, the government of that country ha
length aſſumed ſuch a form as to render a treaty with it pra
Mr. Wickham, the Britiſh plenipotentiary to the Swiſs Cant
appointed, in conſequence, to make ſome overtures, through th
dium of Mr. Barthelemi, the French envoy at Baſle; but this fr
tempt at negociation ſoon terminated without effect.

An apparently much more ſerious offer of this nature was m
following year. About the latter end of the month of Septembe
through the intervention of the Daniſh miniſter at Paris, a paſſp
applied for and obtained for a confidential perſon to be ſent t
from the court of London, commiſſioned to diſcuſs with the
government the means moſt proper for conducing to the re-eſt
ment of peace. Lord Malmeſbury was the perſon appointed
Britiſh court to undertake this miſſion. His lordſhip accordin
paired to Paris, were he continued about two months. It was pro
on the part of England, as the baſis of the treaty, that France ſho
ſtore the Netherlands to the emperor, and evacuate Italy; in whi
England engaged to reſtore all the conqueſts made on that power
Eaſt and Weſt Indies. The French directory replied, that they co
conſent to propoſals contrary to the conſtitution, to the laws,
the treaties which bind the republic. Thus ended this negociati

The beginning of the year 1797 was diſtinguiſhed by as extraor
an event as perhaps ever occurred in this or any other war—the la
of Great Britain by a force of twelve hundred men, without art
and almoſt without accoutrements. The alarm at firſt was ge
and great, throughout the whole of Pembrokeſhire, on the c
which the landing was made; but the men ſurrendered on the app
of a very inadequate force, and almoſt without reſiſtance. On in
it appeared that they conſiſted entirely of galley-ſlaves, and oth
minals, from Breſt; and the object was ſuppoſed to be at once to
an alarm on the Britiſh coaſt, and to rid the French republic of a
ber of deſperate perſons; but whatever the intentions of the
might be, they met on the whole with a complete diſappointmen
not only the expedition proved entirely fruitleſs, but, as two of th
which diſembarked the men were returning into Breſt harbour,
were captured by the St. Fiorenzo and Nymph frigates.

The apprehenſions excited by this circumſtance had ſcarcely ſub
when a more ſerious cauſe of alarm occurred to agitate the minds
public. The bank of England diſcontinued the iſſuing of ſpecie in
cuſtomary payments. A run (to ſpeak in the commercial phraſeo
had taken place upon ſome of the country banks; and the great de
for ſpecie from the bank of England induced the directors to l

before the miniſter; in conſequence of which made on the 26th of February, prohibiting the om the bank. This order was afterwards ſanc- act of parliament, by which the reſtriction was er, and afterwards by another act, continuing nt war.

h, government received intelligence of an im- ned by the Britiſh fleet, under the command of panish fleet of much ſuperior force, on the 14th St. Vincent. The Engliſh admiral, by a ſuc- rated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the l two ſhips of 112 guns, one of 84, and one of 74. and, however, who had ſo long been the de- he nation, ſeemed ſuddenly to conſpire its over- of April a moſt alarming mutiny broke out on el fleet at Spithead, under the command of lord equired an advance of their pay, and certain re- relative to the allowance of proviſions. They o for each ſhip, who for ſeveral days had the en- hole fleet, over which no officer had the leaſt ical ſituation, government deemed it moſt ex- ll compliance with all their demands; on which to their duty. But in a week or two afterwards, ing been offered in parliament for the ſecurity e mutiny, they again roſe, deprived their officers l the diſpute ſeemed to wear a more gloomy bill, ſecuring to the ſeamen what they had been re haſtily paſſed through both houſes, and lord rtſmouth to act as mediator. The delegates of elves ſatisfied, and harmony and good order was

er, ſtill remained in other parts of the navy; and of ſome ſhips lying at Sheerneſs began to mutiny, and ſo contagious was the ſpirit of inſurrection ſeamen, that almoſt all the ſhips of admiral Dun- ppointed delegates, and ſailed away to the Nore, heerneſs. New grievances were required to be extravagant demands to be complied with; go- vinced that to yield would only be to encourage roceedings; and every diſpoſition was therefore ips to ſubmiſſion. All communication between cut off, and no proviſions or water ſuffered to go ers, to ſupply themſelves with theſe, detained all ver, and took out of them whatever they choſe, es, the principal of whom was one Richard Par- tural abilities, gave draughts on the treaſury, as e navy of England. At length, being reduced to d diſſenſions and diſtruſt prevailing among them- ft the mutinous fleet, and ſurrendered themſelves f theſe were fired upon by the others; but at , and gave up their delegates, who, with a num- re conſidered as principals in the mutiny, were l. Some of them were executed, others ſentenced ts, and the reſt pardoned. Richard Parker, who er of the fleet while in a ſtate of mutiny, was the

firſt who was tried and executed. He diſplayed great
and ſuffered with the utmoſt firmneſs and fortitude.

As if to eraſe this ſtain from the annals of the Brit
of admiral Duncan, conſiſting principally of the ſhip
engaged in this unhappy and diſgraceful mutiny, ſ
watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, v
for ſome time blockaded, till, on its venturing ou
enſued, in which the Engliſh fleet obtained a comple
the Dutch admiral De Winter, the vice-admiral, and

In conſequence of this ſignal victory, admiral Du
viſcount Duncan; and on account of this and the ot
of the war, the 19th of December was appointed to
thankſgiving day, on which day his majeſty and both
ment went in ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's, to retu
ven for the victories gained by his fleets.

In the courſe of this year, another attempt was m
cabinet to negotiate a treaty of peace with France.
of a peace between the French republic and the emp
ſigned at Leoben, in the month of April, by whic
were given up to France, the difficulty which had b
negotiation appeared to be in ſome meaſure removed
were again made to the French government for paſſ
who might enter into diſcuſſions relative to the baſis
Lord Malmeſbury was again appointed to this miſſion
directory objected to his coming to Paris, and appoi
place of the conference with commiſſioners they ſen
purpoſe. What the Netherlands, however, had been
tempt to treat, the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon p
ſent; and, after a ſtay of nearly three months, lord
being able to declare himſelf empowered to conſent to
all the conqueſts made from France or her allies, was
to depart, and, on the 20th of September, returne
having effected the object of his miſſion.

In the following month, the definitive treaty betwe
public and the emperor was concluded and ratified;
having little other employment for their armies, beg
of an immediate invaſion of England. The directory
army along the coaſts oppoſite to Great Britain, whic
army of England; and a variety of idle reports were pr
to preparations ſaid to be making in the ports of Franc
that rafts of an enormous ſize and peculiar conſtructio
for the conveyance of troops. The Britiſh miniſtry di
ridiculous exaggerations, nor even the evident abſurdi
any attempt at an invaſion of England, in the face of a
ſuperior to that of every enemy united, to produce an i
but took ſuch meaſures of precaution as were moſt prop
defence of the kingdom, and to guard the different par
from the miſchievous conſequences of a ſudden attack.
of the enemy were not even attempted to be carried int
the directory ſoon after turned their views towards an
the globe, by fitting out, at Toulon, a formidable ex
about the latter end of May, ſailed for Egypt, under
the celebrated Buonaparte, probably with a view to pre
the conqueſt of that country, for an attack on the B
in India.

e preparations made for the invaſion of England,
ts had been fitted out at Fluſhing, and ſome other
land, which were to come round by the canals to
in order to avoid the Britiſh cruizers. An expe-
fitted out in May 1798, under the command of
n, and major-general Coote, which landed a body
who blew up and entirely deſtroyed the ſluice-gates
l at that place, and burnt ſeveral veſſels that were
ts. Unfortunately, when the troops were ready to
ad changed, and the ſea ran ſo high, that it was
ble; and the enemy, in the mean time, collected
force, that general Coote, and thoſe who had
mounting to nearly a thouſand men, were obliged
es priſoners.

end of this year, intelligence was received of the
ever gained at ſea, even by the Britiſh navy, which
equalled glory, on ſo many occaſions, in the courſe
On the firſt of Auguſt, admiral ſir Horatio Nelſon,
ed by earl St. Vincent, in purſuit of the French
mentioned above, ſailed from Toulon in May,
nforcement of ten ſail of the line, arrived off the
here he found the enemy, and immediately made
tack. The French fleet was at anchor in the bay
dmiral's ſhip carried a hundred and twenty guns,
l men; three had eighty guns each, and nine had
were drawn up near the ſhore in a ſtrong and com-
lanked by four frigates and many gun-boats, and
by a battery planted in a ſmall iſland. Their ſitua-
extremely advantageous for defence; but the great
did not deter the Britiſh admiral from making the
many ſhips of the line as the French commander,
his line by the introduction of a ſhip of fifty guns;
he enemy, he was deprived of the aſſiſtance of the
k upon a ſhoal, from which it could not be extri-
t morning. Three other veſſels were haſtily ad-
but the accident warned them of the danger, and
e as to avoid the ſhoal. The admiral was extremely
line of the French, and ſurround a part of the fleet,
d his purpoſe. At ſun-ſet the engagement com-
parties fought with the utmoſt fury. While the
ecided, the French admiral Brueys received two
g changed his ſituation, was, ſoon after, deprived
hot. When the action had continued for two hours,
ips were captured; a third ſtruck ſoon after; and
n the power of the Engliſh, who eagerly proceeded
heir victory. About nine at night, a fire was ob-
Orient, the French admiral's ſhip, which increaſed
till about ten o'clock, when ſhe blew up with a
An awful pauſe and ſilence for about three minutes
e wreck of the maſts and yards, which had been
eight, fell down into the water, and on board the
After this awful ſcene, the engagement was profe-
ll day-break; and only two of the French ſhips of
igates, eſcaped capture or deſtruction. Nine ſail of
, and one, beſides L'Orient, was burned, her own

captain ſetting fire to her. A frigate alſo was burn
mander. Captain Hood, in the Zealous, purſued the
but he was ſoon recalled by the admiral, as none of the
port him in the chace.

This ſignal victory not only gave the Britiſh fleet the
of the Mediterranean, but appeared to infuſe freſh cou
powers on the continent to renew their exertions againſ
Turks declared war with the Republic, and the king of
and took poſſeſſion of Rome, then in the power of the
reverſe he afterwards experienced, and the other events
in Italy will be related in our ſummary of the affairs of

About the ſame time that intelligence of this glorious
ceived, ſir John Borlaſe Warren defeated, off the coa
French ſquadron conſiſting of one ſhip of the line, the H
frigates, with troops and ammunition on board. On the
they were deſcried by the Britiſh ſquadron. At half p
morning of the 12th the action commenced; and at elev
after a gallant defence, ſtruck: the frigates then made
the ſignal for a general chace was immediately made
After a running fight of five hours, three of the frigates
and three others afterwards became prizes. Thus the
two frigates excepted, fell into the hands of the Britiſh;
of the French, as well as of the malcontents in Ireland, w
defeated.

To complete the ſucceſſes of the year, the fortreſs
and the iſland of Minorca, ſurrendered on the 15th o
general Stuart and commodore Duckworth. This
made without the loſs of a man.

In the beginning of May, 1799, a new war having tak
dia with Tippoo Saib, Seringapatam, his capital, was t
ſelf killed in the aſſault, by the Britiſh troops under t
lieutenant-general Harris. Of the capture of this impor
the conſequent addition of the greater part of the Myſore
territory of the Eaſt-India company, a further account
in our hiſtory of the Britiſh tranſactions and conqueſts in

In the month of Auguſt following, an expedition wa
the Weſt Indies under the command of lieutenant-genera
vice-admiral lord Hugh Seymour, conſiſting of two ſhi
five frigates, and ſeveral tranſports carrying ſtores and
arrived on the 16th of that month off the mouth of the r
when the fort New Amſterdam, and the town of Paramar
tal of the Dutch colony of Surinam, ſurrendered by capi
Britiſh commanders without attempting reſiſtance.

But the principal military operation undertaken by Gre
this year, was the expedition fitted out to reſcue Holland
of the French, in which about 30,000 Britiſh troops w
who were joined in Holland by 17,000 Ruſſians, taken i
England. The firſt diviſion of this armament, under ſir
crombie, ſailed from Deal and Margate on the 13th of A
Helder-point, at the mouth of the Texel; but encount
favourable and violent gales, that the troops could not e
at the place of their deſtination till the morning of the 2
conteſted action then took place between the Britiſh and t
Dutch troops; but the valour of the former ultimately tri
the enemy evacuated the batteries and works of the Held

nd thirteen Indiamen ſurrendered to the fleet under
o immediately after ſtood down into the Texel, and
Dutch fleet lying there, the whole of which, con-
s of war, ſurrendered to the Engliſh admiral, the
g to fight, and compelling their officers to give up
rvice of the prince of Orange.

uke of York arrived in Holland, with the ſecond
pon him the command of the army; and on the
took place between the Britiſh and Ruſſians, and
the former failed in their attack, in conſequence
ng themſelves to be thrown into diſorder by their
e, which occaſioned them to ſuffer ſeverely—their
1500 men, and their general, who was taken pri-
however, ſoon recovered from the effects of this
d of October, after a hard-fought battle of twelve
e enemy to retreat, and took poſſeſſion of the town
ere the ſucceſs of the expedition terminated. The
reinforcement of about 6,000 men, and occupied
ſition, which it would be neceſſary to carry before
nce; beſides which, the ſtate of the weather, the
he roads, and the conſequent total want of the ſup-
army, preſented ſuch inſurmountable difficulties,
erwards it was judged expedient to withdraw the
anced poſition; and as it now appeared that there
f ſucceſs in any attempt to proſecute further the
tion, the duke, in conjunction with vice-admiral
an armiſtice with general Brune, who commanded
ian armies, the principal conditions of which were,
French and Batavian priſoners, taken before that
reſtored to their reſpective countries; that the com-
uſſian army ſhould evacuate the territory, coaſts,
navigation of the Dutch republic, by the 30th of
thout committing any devaſtation by inundations,
otherwiſe injuring the ſources of navigation; and
atteries taken poſſeſſion of at the Helder, or at
d be reſtored in the ſtate in which they were taken,
vement, in the ſtate in which they then were, to-
Dutch artillery taken in them.

mination of an expedition, the failure of which,
, was conſidered as almoſt impoſſible; and which,
with ſuch brilliant advantages, and ſo fair a pro-
ceſs. Yet it muſt not be forgotten, that the cap-
eet has nearly annihilated the naval power of the
c, and ſecured ſtill more to Britain the ſovereignty
her only protection, the ſource of all her wealth

November, a new revolution took place in the go-
The celebrated Buonaparte having returned from
directory, and aſſumed a kind of dictatorial power,
*ſt Conſul*, according to a new conſtitution which he
ed and accepted. In order to induce the people to
ge, by which he was inveſted with the ſupreme au-
them that he would take effectual meaſures to put
ies and deſtruction of war. In purſuance of this
y day on which he entered on his new dignity, he

addreſſed a note immediately to the king of Great Brit
expreſſed a wiſh to contribute effectually to a general p
in a ſecond note, afterwards tranſmitted by M. Ta
Engliſh miniſtry, propoſed "an immediate ſuſpenſio
that plenipotentiaries on each ſide ſhould repair to Dunk
town as advantageouſly ſituated, for the quickneſs of the
munications, and who ſhould apply themſelves, witho
effect the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and a good underſt
the French republic and England."—The Britiſh min
ſhowed no diſpoſition to accede to the overture, prob
the new government of France not to have as yet ac
ſtability to be treated with, and encouraged, by the ſu
attended the arms of the allies in the preceding campai
they ſhould be able ſtill more effectually to humble anc
by a continuance of the war.

Yet we truſt we ſhall not be deemed either wanting i
government, or deficient in real love for our country, ſ
mend to the rulers of nations to recollect the uncertainty
a campaign, and how frequently the jealouſies of allie
views and intereſts cannot be the ſame, diſſolve the firm
fruſtrate the beſt concerted plans; how expenſive,
ruinous, are the triumphs of war; and how extenſivel
ſolid are the advantages of peace, even though pu
ſiderable conceſſions, and the ſacrifice of a falſe honou

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GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GR

George-William-Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; p
of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of H
26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the p
Charlotte, of Mecklenburg Strelitz, born May 16, 174
tember 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George-Auguſtus-Frederic, prince of Wales, b
1762; married, April 8, 1795, to her highneſs the p
of Brunſwick; has iſſue, Jan. 7, 1796, a princeſs.

2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763; cle ed
burg, February 27, 1764; created duke of York and A
ber 7, 1784, K. G. and K. B.; married, September 29, 1
Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharina, princeſs royal of Pruſſia.

3. Prince William-Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765;
Clarence, K. G. and K. T.

4. Charlotte-Auguſta-Matilda, princeſs royal of Eng
tember 29, 1766; married, May 18, 1797, to his
Frederic-William, hereditary prince of Wurtemberg-S

5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767; create
April, 1799.

6. Princeſs Auguſta-Sophia, born November 8, 176

7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 27, 1770.

8. Prince Erneſt-Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771; create
berland, April 1799.

9. Prince Frederic-Auguſtus, born January 27, 177

10. Prince Adolphus-Frederic, born February 24, 1

11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.

12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

a, born Auguſt 7, 1783.
nce of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe-Go-

eſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the
w duke) of Brunſwick Lunenburg, January 16,

eſty.
-Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25,

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# WALES.

ncipality is politically included in England, yet,
language and manners, we have, in conformity
, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

## Extent and Situation.

Degrees.

between { 51 and 54 North latitude.
2,41 and 4,56 Weſt longitude.

Area in ſquare miles, 7011.

UAGE.] The Welch, according to the beſt anti-
nts of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in
core years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar,
the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being
y the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. Their
of the Celtic, or language of the ancient Gauls,
ed by time, and is highly commended for its pa-
e powers.

Vales was formerly of greater extent than it is at
led only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the
nſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch,
were ſhut up within more narrow bounds, and
retreat weſtward. It does not however appear that
e any farther conqueſts in their country than Mon-
ordſhire, which are now reckoned part of England,
ed into four circuits, comprehending twelve coun-

AND WATER.] The ſeaſons are nearly the ſame as
of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome.
ſpecially towards the north, is mountainous, but
s, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other
ns many quarries of freeſtone and ſlate, ſeveral
bundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſup-
e ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clwyd, the
the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh
quantities of fiſh.

would be endleſs to particulariſe the mountains of
don, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which

lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganſhire, a
mous; and their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted
making ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman,
and Norman powers.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } In theſe particu
fers little from En
horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue; and the
are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef; and their cows a
for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers o
the mountains. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, cop
iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver
by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badg
of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The inhabitants of
poſed to amount to a
and though not in general wealthy, they are provided w
ceſſaries and many of the conveniences of life. The lan
brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand
and fifty-two pounds a-year. The Welch are, if poſſibl
of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſci
anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſin
lity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigr
remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authe
manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval w
ning of the Chriſtian æra. It is however certain, that
their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancie
atteſted, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was fo
for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who l
year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the
formation, and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmou
inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch t
of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to h
the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independenc
reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacr
an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitiou
Welch may be called an unmixed people, and are rema
maintaining the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict ad
cient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among
fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtr
We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobil
of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of
land and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpe
language, though numbers of them underſtand the Wel

RELIGION.] The maſſacre of the Welch clergy by A
popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not c
Romiſh ritual, has been already mentioned. Wales, afte
der the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak
The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their fa
pretended power of abſolving them from crimes; and the
their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves
of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly
and in many of the country congregations they preach
and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a great diſcour
ligion and learning; but the meaſures taken by the ſociety
ing Chriſtian knowledge have in a great degree removed t

poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a
two ſchoolmaſters were employed to remove from
ne inſtruction of the inhabitants; and their ſcholars
. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more,
ion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by
nificence. They print, at a vaſt expenſe, Bibles,
nd other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis
Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-

eligion in Wales is that of the church of England;
ople in many places are ſo tenacious of their ancient
retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome
ong them are ſtill Roman-catholics. It is likewiſe
unds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. The princi-
great numbers of proteſtant diſſenters.

s,—ſee England. In former times, Wales contained
an it does now; and about the time of the Norman
ous foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all
he principality.

LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning at a
but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres
ergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it
ngland. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the
learned men, particularly four of the name of Gil-
nbrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden,
lchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men
, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſ-
ous king Arthur's and his wife's burying-place was
of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II.
Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has pro-
lent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were
and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman-catholic, and
ller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeve-
he name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that
he Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the
s likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman
ord keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time
After all, it appears, that the great merit of the
n former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiqui-
nd hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwith-
Dr. Hicks and other antiquaries have ſaid to the con-
he Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly
Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia,
by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted au-
owland's Mona Antiqua.) The excellent hiſtory of
tten by lord Herbert of Cherbury, may be adduced
ſtion of Welch literature.

the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is
that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the
s, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars.
r-noſter is as follows:

*wn wyt, yn y nefoedd, ſancteiddier dy enw: deued dy deyr-
yllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i hed-
yddiol; a madden i ni ein dyledion, ſel y maddeuwn ni*

*i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwar*
*canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn t*

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales c or towns th

either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris of Angleſey*, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknoc ing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in t of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large b verned by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who w and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabit and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile a it is called Little England. The other towns of Wa particular. It is, however, to be obſerved, that W times, was a far more populous and wealthy country ſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, be turned into ſtrong forts at a ſmall expenſe: witneſs fence which many of them made in the civil wars be and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abou antiquity. Se

are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of R are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others ſome appear to be partly Britiſh and partly Roman. ſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet Maiden-ſtone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitu of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the Iſle of Angl Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as bei nary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly- ganſhire is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great B Windſor; and the remains of it ſhow it to have been fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite do overhangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as gr the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are th a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a r nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide ſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its heig variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous we name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to th of the common people, miraculous cures have been p ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, ſ lars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent whi of the very ſhift in which his great grandmother, Mar head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt i

* The Iſle of Angleſey, which is the moſt weſtern county of N rounded on all ſides by the Iriſh Sea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, whe Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Menei, which in ſome places m at low water. The iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh Druids.

vo different trials and calculations lately made, is about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It rcely varies in the quantity of water either in dry t in conſequence of the latter it aſſumes a wheyiſh wn adjoining to the well is known by the name of arvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall ellers; from one hand the impending rocks ſeem to cruſh them to pieces; and the great precipice s over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and (till very lately, ed on the ſide of the road) full of danger, that one al conſequence. Snowdon hill has been found, by ent, to be 1240 yards in perpendicular height.
number of pleaſing proſpects and picturesque views country is highly worthy the attention of the curious

MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and f England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with ch they import numbers of black cattle. Milford ckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of ns have been granted by parliament for its fortifica- it the principal harbour in the kingdom would meet ion in parliament from the numerous Corniſh and ers, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly e of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. broke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its in- an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral res; and Wales in general carries on a great coal d and Ireland.

AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incor- nd, in the 27th of Henry VIII.; when, by act of par- rnment of it was modelled according to the Engliſh doms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, be- l the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the d privileges, particularly that of ſending members to knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire- oneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there r ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in ch of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the eſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires , and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Me- leſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; hoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the zabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the o that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice-aſſiſtant.
As to the revenues, the crown has a certain though the product of the ſilver and lead mines; but it is nue accruing to the prince of Wales, from his princi- exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.
arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of Eng- addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge

of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that
ward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohem
killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich*
David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſai
and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, t

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncer
of the number of petty princes who governed it. T
vereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh
formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons
Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people were ne
dued by the Romans, though part of their country, as
ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. The Saxon
ready obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmout
but they never penetrated farther, and the Welch re
pendent people, governed by their own princes and
About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divide
among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions
or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis land; and Venec
Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the indepen
About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a
mings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to
Welch made many brave attempts to maintain their libe
Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of E
ſupplied with a pretext for the future conqueſt of Wale
infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the
his undutiful ſon Gryffyn, having put himſelf under th
Henry III. to whom he did homage.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edw
ſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Ll
of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llew
mitted, Edward raiſed an army at a prodigious expenſe,
penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking poſſeſſion of the Iſl
drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and ob
ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made
under young Llewellin; but, at laſt, in 1282, he was ki
He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt indepen
Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treac
him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, fi
pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of Eng
about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhu
of the Welch bards. Perceiving that this cruelty was no
complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen, in the year 128
vered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch, having a
among themſelves, might the more readily recogniſe h
This prince was the unhappy Edward II.; and from him
prince of Wales has always ſince deſcended to the eldeſt
Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England beco
ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of E
always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with part
of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held their titular
actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with
was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the a
principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of
when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was crea
of Wales.

# ISLE OF MAN.

oned by Tacitus was not this iſland, but the Iſle
think it takes its name from the Saxon word
ecauſe, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt
from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ire-
ns to have been a generical name with the ancients
nd. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more
breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of
and is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It
ar day three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from
here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making
he ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the
om which it does not differ much in other reſpects.
arren, and the campaign fruitful in wheat, barley,
p, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains,
divide the iſland, both protects and fertiliſes the
is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants
orſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy;
ed with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound
the puffins, which breed in rabbit holes, are almoſt
eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland
lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as
arble, ſlate, and ſtone.

contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and four towns on the
own is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of
ele of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the
eſt trade in the iſland, and the richeſt and moſt
ccount of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole,
ſea. It contains about 900 houſes, and is a neat
buildings lofty, but the ſtreets narrow and cloſe.
a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious
may ride ſafe from all winds, excepting the north-
y throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how con-
is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers,
thin theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice
nue; and this neceſſarily leads us to touch upon the

of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, who have
ed, this iſland was their rendez-vous, and their chief
lected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides,
Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in
we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and
eir names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages
s. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scot-
ce, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſu-
nd obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge
ount. It ſeems to have continued tributary to the
till it was reduced by Edward I.; and the kings of
t time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland;
ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes,
ward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland,

and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of
family honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV.
and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Nor
mily, and, that being forfeited, upon ſir John Stanle
rity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of h
volved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſte
Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the
Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms of the iſland from th
and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being p
in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial
iſland, though the form of its government is altered; a
now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as th
enjoyed. The inhabitants alſo retain many of their a
tions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the chu
The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual
eminences of the other biſhops, but does not ſit in the
peers—his ſee never having been erected into an Engl
of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epi
was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſide
ceſe upward of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 17
three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety a
rineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and
attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to hi
couraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruct
ren of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome o
pieces into the Manks' language, to render them more
to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pari
Some of his notions reſpecting government and church
not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo ſe
tues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a grea
Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Card
ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regar
tained an order from the court of France, that no private
ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well maintained in th
livings are comfortable. The language, which is ca
and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſ
with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtame
mon prayer book have been tranſlated into the Manks'
natives, who amount to about 30,000, are inoffenſive,
hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, a
thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatme
ducts for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallo
exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they
ſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promont
little iſland, called the Calf of Man: it is about three
and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlo

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amu
They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions
of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that m
of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem
ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

# ISLE OF WIGHT.

ated oppoſite the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which
annel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles;
art of the county of Southampton, and is within
heſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to
ly twenty-three miles; its breadth, from north to
en. The air is in general healthy, particularly in
the ſoil is various; but ſo great is its fertility, that
go computed, that more wheat was grown here in
be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is
eſent produce, under the great improvements of
e additional quantity of land lately brought into
han kept pace with the increaſe of population.
hich afford fine paſture for ſheep, extends from eaſt
e middle of the iſland. The interior parts of the
its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful
ſpects, not only in the paſtoral but alſo in the great

Of theſe beauties the gentlemen of the iſland
elves, as well in the choice of ſituations for their
other improvements. Domeſtic fowls and poultry
eat numbers; the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at
ner-bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſhing them-
nd.

y of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty
landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the
; it has ſome very fine gentlemen's ſeats; and it is
ties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.
ided into thirty pariſhes; and, according to a very
on made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then
en thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops
Moſt of the farm-houſes are built with ſtone, and even
neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.
ewport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of
onſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties
nel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and,
p to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The
ets of Newport extend from eaſt to weſt, and are
gles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean,

e, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remark-
ement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here,
iſoner, from November 1647, to September 1648.
n of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place
his children: and his daughter, the princeſs Eliza-
There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which
out the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when
nd blockhouſes were built in different parts of the

It is rather extraordinary, that even modern authors are to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five cir into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaug ſter. The laſt diviſion is the moſt common, and likewi cient.

| | Counties. | Chief |
|---|---|---|
| Leinſter, 12 counties | Dublin | Dublin |
| | Louth | Drogheda |
| | Wicklow | Wicklow |
| | Wexford | Wexford |
| | Longford | Longford |
| | Eaſt Meath | Trim |
| | Weſt Meath | Mullingar |
| | King's County | Philipſtow |
| | Queen's County | Maryboro |
| | Kilkenny | Kilkenny |
| | Kildare | Naas and |
| | Carlow | Carlow |
| Ulſter, 9 counties | Down | Down Pa |
| | Armagh | Armagh |
| | Monaghan | Monagha |
| | Cavan | Cavan |
| | Antrim | Carrickfe |
| | Londonderry | Derry |
| | Tyrone | Omagh |
| | Fermanagh | Enniſkille |
| | Donegall | Lifford |
| Connaught, 5 counties | Leitrim | Carrick o |
| | Roſcommon | Roſcomm |
| | Mayo | Ballinrob |
| | Sligo | Sligo |
| | Galway | Galway |
| Munſter, 6 counties | Clare | Ennis |
| | Cork | Cork |
| | Kerry | Tralee |
| | Limerick | Limerick |
| | Tipperary | Clonmel |
| | Waterford | Waterford |

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of not much from that of England, excepting that it is n ſeaſons in general being much wetter. From the report giſters, it appears that the number of days on which in Ireland was much greater than in the ſame years in without the evidence of regiſters, it is certain that moiſt aut rain) is not only more characteriſtic of the climate than that of England, but it is alſo one of the worſt and nient circumſtances. This is accounted for by obſervin weſterly winds, ſo favourable to other regions, and ſo b this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are ye extreme. Meeting with no lands on this ſide of America force, and proving in general too powerful for the co the ſhifting winds from the eaſtern and African contine hither the vapours of an immenſe ocean. By this cauſe, land is much obſcured; and, from the nature of reſt and eſe vapours deſcend in ſuch conſtant rains, as threaten

earth in ſome ſeaſons. This unavoidable evil from na-
gravated by the increaſe of it from others, which are
olitical. The hand of induſtry has been long idle in
almoſt every advantage muſt be obtained from its la-
diſcouragements on the labourer muſt neceſſarily pro-
nguor. Ever ſince the neglect of agriculture in the
e rains of ſo many ages ſubſiding on the lower grounds,
noſt of the extenſive plains into moſſy moraſſes, and
of this beautiful iſle is become a repoſitory for ſtag-
ich, in the courſe of evaporation, impregnate the air
thalations*." But, in many reſpects, the climate of
agreeable than that of England, the ſummers being
inters leſs ſevere. The piercing froſts, the deep ſnows,
l effects of thunder and lightning, which are ſo fre-
d in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.
s above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the
, has been urged as an argument why the inhabitants
eir attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total deſer-
nd conſequent injury to the growth of population; but
initely various, as to be capable of almoſt every ſpecies
table to ſuch latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety.
cuous, that it has been obſerved by a reſpectable Engliſh
" natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two king-
ly in favour of Ireland; of this there can ſcarcely be a
ed, when it is conſidered that ſome of the more beauti-
eſt cultivated counties in England owe almoſt every
pital art and induſtry of its inhabitants."

clude this article with the further ſentiments of the ſame
ung), whoſe knowledge of the ſubject, acquaintance
om, and candour, are unimpeachable.

nſtance which ſtrikes me as the greateſt ſingularity of Ire-
kineſs of the ſoil, which ſhould ſeem at firſt ſight againſt
fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is ſo gene-
good reaſon to believe the whole iſland is one vaſt rock
ta and kinds riſing out of the ſea. I have rarely heard of
s being ſunk without meeting with it. In general it ap-
rface in every part of the kingdom; the flatteſt and moſt
Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great
s much as the more barren ones. May we not recogniſe
d of bounteous providence, which has given perhaps the
in Europe to the moiſteſt climate in it; If as much rain
lays in England (a ſoil very rarely met with in Ireland,
out much ſtone), as falls upon the rocks of her ſiſter
ands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are
erdure; thoſe of lime-ſtone with only a thin covering of
e ſofteſt and moſt beautiful turf imaginable.

neſs of the ſoil in Ireland is ſo univerſal, that it predo-
y ſort. One cannot uſe with propriety the terms clay,
: it muſt be a ſtony clay, a ſtony loam, a gravelly ſand.
y the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland; but it is for
r diſcrimination. I have once or twice ſeen almoſt a
the ſurface; but it is extremely rare. The true yellow
found in a thin ſtratum, under the ſurface mould, and

* O'Connor's Diſſertations.

over a rock; harſh, tenacious, ſtony, ſtrong loams, diffi
are not uncommon, but they are quite different from En

"Friable ſandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very comm
form the beſt ſoils in the kingdom for tillage and ſheep.
Roſcommon abound particularly in them. The moſt fe
the bullock paſtures of Limerick, and the banks of th
Clare, called the Corcaſſes. Theſe are a mellow, putrid

"Sand, which is ſo common in England, and yet
through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from G
terſburgh, is no where met with in Ireland, except in
hillocks, upon the ſea-coaſt. Nor did I ever meet wit
chalky ſoil.

"Beſides the great fertility of the ſoil, there are other
which come within my ſphere to mention. Few countri
watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkabl
the fineſt parts of the kingdom are on the banks of theſe
neſs the Suir, Blackwater, and Liffy, the Boyne, the No
and part of the Shannon; they waſh a ſcenery that can
ceeded. From the rockineſs of the country, however,
of them that have not obſtructions, which are great impe
land navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that inte
which a flat country can never abound with; and, at the ſ
are not in ſuch number as to confer the character of pove
ally attends them. I was either upon or very near the m
in the kingdom, Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry;
Cork; thoſe of Mourne, in Down; Crow-Patrick a
Mayo; theſe are the principal in Ireland; and they are
in height and ſublimity, which ſhould render them the
traveller's attention. The ſoil, though rocky, is extreme
haps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly culti
age, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdo
tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the grou
for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northe
kingdom, abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cul
finite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rear
of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellen
gious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh except
Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, affords the
of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil."

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive; that of All
miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There
which are very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered o
kingdom; but it has been obſerved, that theſe are not i
than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. } The numerous river
lakes, ſpacious bays, co
vens, harbours and creeks, with which Ireland abounds,
and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lo
the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between C
the three other provinces, and, after a courſe of 150 mil
its progreſs many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlan
tween Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine mil
navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of r
quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe; but this might be reme

enſe of 10 or 12,000l.; and communication might
1 other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The
he ocean near Coleraine; the Boyne falls into St.
at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dub-
emarkable for watering that capital, where it forms
r. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the
e kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below
e Channel at Waterford-haven.

avens, harbours, and creeks, which every-where indent
he chief glory of Ireland, and render that country be-
in Europe beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt
hoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carling-
Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Balti-
Dummanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth,
onegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

ıs a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly
articularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught.
roduce large quantities of fine fiſh; and the great Lake
the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is re-
petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the
d romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney,
ame from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This
y be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with
, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are
ods, intermixed with ever-greens, from near their tops
nſelves; among which are a number of rivulets tum-
recipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet.
ne of the ſurrounding mountains is a ſmall round lake,
of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch-Bowl.
e of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the
out 300 yards; and when viewed from the circular top,
niſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great,
mable, as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the
rs of this bowl, through a chaſm into the middle lake,
he fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards.
ong the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern parts of the
noſtly incloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing.
the earl of Kenmore, has placed ſome cannon in the
ces, for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge
is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent
, which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and
g the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments,
orn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertain-
a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers.
and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtu-
ightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a
cipice, called the *eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe
ave their neſts in that place.

IGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very im-
ppears from the canals that have lately been cut through
of the kingdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of
een the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens
on from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In ſurvey-
ds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through
s over, which, from the ſpungy nature of the ſoil, becam

a work of incredible labour and expenſe, in ſtrengthen and other works to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more ha guiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. nifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and contin ridges; a *bienn*, or binn, ſignifies a pinnacle, or mount magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. Th often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſam land, however, when compared with ſome other countrie being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and I county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the highe dom; of which Slieu Denard has been calculated at a height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are fou which contain beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate, and veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſte and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlo there are great foreſts, as in the county of Donegall, an part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, w good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are la Several contain ſilver and lead; and it is ſaid that thirty p lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilv Wicklow; where ſome gold ore has likewiſe been diſcove not ſeem likely to prove very productive. A copper and l been diſcovered at Tipperary; as likewiſe iron-ore, and ſtone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a ſtr very much impregnated with copper, which yields great that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by puttin of iron into a place where the water falls from ſome height may receive the whole power of the falling water. Th holds the copper in ſolution, lets it fall in order to diſſolv which it has a ſtronger affinity. On the iron the other me its proper form, incruſting the plate, and gradually pene that at laſt a plate of copper is left inſtead of iron. Hence the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron but this is a miſtake; for the iron is all diſſolved and car ſtream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in ſo the latter, deprived of its ſolvent, which then rendered it i makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt of the co coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke; an cryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe pecul the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe known proverb, "that Kilkenny contains fire without without mud, and air without fog."

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. There is little der this head th to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as thoſ and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, veſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce.

nd in Ireland; but they have long ſince been exter-
olf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped
yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What has
rved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions
s the prodigious numbers of hogs and ſheep, as well as
in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plen-
a England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts
kewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England,
a larger and more excellent in their kind.
ncement of the preſent century, the number of inha-
d was thought to be about two millions; whereas, in
e, according to ſir William Petty, no more than
from the accounts laid before the houſe of commons
rned by the hearth-money collectors), the number of
d amounted to 474,234. If we add to this the proba-
ce, and allow for the numbers intentionally or una-
oked in ſuch returns, we may reaſonably conclude that
l amount is 500,000.
to conſider what average number of perſons we ſhould
ouſe. In the peaſants' cottages in Ireland (perhaps the
the world), Mr. Young in ſome parts found the aver-
thers have found it in different places to be ſeven; and
in his account of the iſland of Raghery, enumerates
diſcovered the average therein to be 8. In the ci-
l towns, the houſes, particularly in the manufactur-
rally contain ſeveral families; and from different ac-
nbers in ſuch are from 10 up ſo high as 70*.
a, then, it will not perhaps be erroneous, if we fix the
whole iſland at 8 perſons to each houſe; which, mul-
number of houſes, makes the population of Ireland
millions.
nners of the ancient Iriſh, Dr. Leland obſerves, that if
quiries on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their
odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race,
break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their
The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other,
ſtic ardour, can ſcarcely diſcover the leaſt imperfection
government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England
rds them as the moſt deteſtable and contemptible of the
The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious
e all other European countries. Yet when we examine
vithout regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we
in their moſt brilliant periods, anvanced only to an
liſation; a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking in-
the virtues and vices of humanity.
to the preſent deſcendents of the old Iriſh, or, as they
the proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repre-
norant, uncivilifed, and blundering ſort of people. Im-
e and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their
quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and pa-
ip. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little
veen them and the more uninformed part of their neigh-

* numerated the inhabitants of two pariſhes in Dublin, in 1731, and
er in each houſe at twelve and a half. The numbers varied from 10 to
South of Ireland.

bours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be acc
cidental than natural cauſes. By far the greater n
papiſts; and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who g
ſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ig
alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which
have prevented the exertion both of their mental a
but when employed in the ſervice of foreign prin
diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity.
names have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, wh
and ſon. Formerly the *O* was uſed by their chie
piqued themſelves on the antiquity of their famili
the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melan
ſome of their lateſt airs are lively, and, when ſung
extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſp
parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncou
vail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this c
in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom
corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, hav
body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſ
of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhe
meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to th
often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to
as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are ch
more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, partic
the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of l
of any in Ireland, while their tyrannical landlo
ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Ir
of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as
authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of Amer
cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the
the ſame materials, ſerved the double purpoſes of
family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having
the middle of the floor, with an opening through
ney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch
as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a h
and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes
ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food; for, howe
fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor nativ
chers' meat of any kind. Their children, plump,
ſcarcely know the uſe of clothes, and are not aſham
in the roads, and gaze upon ſtrangers.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands l
community, and to themſelves, who, if they had b
with their neighbours, of being inſtructed in the
Chriſtianity, and being inured and encouraged to i
would have added conſiderable ſtrength to governm

The deſcendents of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince
land by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous,
part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the no
principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and nor
moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on, eſpecially
derry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter,
pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourho
cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom

n of James I. and other preſbyterians who fled from
country in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves,
great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth, the linen manufacture,
ce carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection.
ew, it appears, that the preſent inhabitants are com-
ſt claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant,
inhabit, or rather exiſt upon, the interior and
deſcendents of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin,
ork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole
nd, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience,
nd cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive
dly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern pro-
the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own re-
of living, that it will require ſome ages before the
nd are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to
. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation,
ttle in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from
nk in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſ-
vn; but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of
an real friendſhip.

he eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of
with that of England. Among the bulk of the peo-
ncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt
ind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their
d dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contribu-
ries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to
not prevent proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid
wns and communities. How far it may be the inte-
nat ſome kind of balance between the two religions
we ſhall not here inquire.

s at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly
tiſts, quakers, and methodiſts, who are all of them
erated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the
n erecting free-ſchools for civiliſing and converting
proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated
ting Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools, though of no
17, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have been
of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and know-
Iriſh.

ICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are
Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.
s are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork,
romore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe,
ck, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame
nd Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made
ch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſt. It is, how-
neaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo
er the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible
The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the
who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable
, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general,
the better ſort who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is
few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeem
tivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'
the Iriſh "appear to have been, from the moſt r
poliſhed people, and that with propriety they ma
thers of letters." We are even told that Egypt re
ters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſente
ceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But certainly no litera
yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the int
tianity into this country; and the evidence of a
vious to this period, reſts entirely on fabulous tra
very doubtful authority.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick* landed in Irel
holy and learned Chriſtian preacher there, whoſe
and obedient. Camden obſerves, that "the Iriſh
trick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, that, in
Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their mo
celled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole f
men into all parts of Europe, who were the firſt fo
abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Ita
in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of
farran, and many other monaſteries, in Britain."
teſtimony of venerable Bede, that, about the mi
century, many nobles, and other orders of the An
from their own country into Ireland, either for inſ
opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſci
Scots (as he ſtyles the Iriſh) maintained them, tau
niſhed them with books, without fee or reward: '
teſtimony," ſays lord Lyttleton, "not only to the
wiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of that nation
marks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſla
Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave pe
ſeat of learning: 'nor is it improbable or ſurpriſin
ſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeable to the
writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was bu
colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhe
republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour
Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has p
equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire.
of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers o
among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Irel
may alſo be particularly mentioned ſir Richard Stee
Parnel, Sterne, Goldſmith, and the late celebrated

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſi
minated Trinity-college. It conſiſts of two ſquare
which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms ea
one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a v
but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mou
inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhe
ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part
ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was
members of this body, and the moſt learned man it

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; bu
this, and ſays, that "it appears from the moſt authentic records
Wales."

es of which have been built within about twenty
ury bounty, and from thence called Parliament-
ne; and the front of it, next the city of Dublin,
ilaſters, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an
ntirely of Portland-ſtone. The chapel is a very
alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are
new hall, in which the members of the college
rge room. In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in
nales in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done
and are the labours of almoſt the whole life of a

founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but
on conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and
has from time to time been augmented to twenty-
ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole
at preſent about four hundred, who are of three
oners, penſioners, and ſizers or ſervitors. Of the
alled ſeniors; and the annual income of each of
undred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to
and pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power
s of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the
he viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor,
Dublin.

CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL. The wolf dogs of Ireland have already been mentioned. The erfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. ought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, ometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has en feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of reateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giants' unty of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, ed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a cele- antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt h water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; t at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a ſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of winds to the eaſt, and is, like that, loſt in the

s compoſed of pillars, all of angular ſhapes, from The eaſtern point where it joins the rock, ter- dicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pil- are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pil- joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix foot in thickneſs; and, what is very ſurpriſing, are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly round each of which is a ledge, which holds them reateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the g in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the up- eath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in rally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ; and one may walk along upon the tops of the the edge of the water.

the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſi- lves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom,

which is of black ſtone, to the height of about fi
vided at equal diſtances, by ſtripes of a reddiſh
a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon
ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum o
the red.' Over this is another ſtratum ten feet t
ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone tw
above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above the
ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and a
ther ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome pla
cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again
are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliff
Engliſh miles.

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, a
uncommon natural objects to be met with in Irela
to be called rarities; and ſeveral pamphlets have b
ſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Irel
round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the co
be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their pir
made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Dubl
land, is

the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in th
much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, E
and is ſuppoſed to contain about 156,000 inhabita
miles north-weſt of London, and near ſixty miles w
North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage-veſſe
tain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles
bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it g
river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equa
in, through the whole length of the city, on both ſi
cious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt
load before the merchants' doors and warehouſes
entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven
ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeabl
beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view
tains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes n
The increaſe of Dublin within theſe laſt twenty ye
it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been
ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The num
year 1777, was 17,151, and are now eſtimated at
This city, in its appearance, bears a near reſemblan
houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow an
ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of G
ville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall,
The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built
runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from

The river Liffey, though navigable for ſea-veſſel
houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when
Thames at London. Over it are two handſome b
of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and t
that have little to recommend them. Formerly th
towards the cuſtom-houſe, was crowded and incon
cial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been o
Eſſex bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant
change has been lately erected, an elegant ſtructure

columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and

eafantly ſituated on an eminence near the river.
rge courts, in which are generally quartered four
d one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle
elieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt
g of the kind in Europe, being capable of con-
1000 horſe.
erected at the public expenſe, and opened in the
eption of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to
hich there are convenient apartments. It is en-
on of the truſtees for the encouragement of the
reland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor,
iſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the
This national inſtitution is productive of great
ing many frauds which otherwiſe would be com-
anch of trade, by which many thouſands are em-
dom greatly enriched.
moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel-
Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and
o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay
the houſes round the green are very ſtately; but
is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample
for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near
laid out and partly built. The houſes being
arried on with ſtone, as far as the firſt floor, will
of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of
we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college,
eet, is built of Portland-ſtone in the fineſt taſte.
uſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at
d. This ſuperb pile was in general of the Ionic
accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beau-
articular was, perhaps, without parallel; the in-
many beauties, and the manner in which the
as been much admired. This ſuperb building, on
, 1792, was obſerved to be in flames, about five
on, when the houſe of lords, as well as the com-
in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of
way to the roof, and looking down into the houſe
ators, confirmed the apprehenſions of thoſe within
as ſurrounded by fire, and would tumble into the
The volume of fire, by which the dome was ſur-
apertures on all ſides, by melting the copper from
thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with
rnace, which at about half paſt ſix tumbled into
great craſh. The valuable library, and all the
, were ſaved. It has ſince been rebuilt, and re-
legance and beauty.
eateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age
uilding of a ſtone wall about the breadth of a mo-
a proportionable height, and three miles in length
el of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy

ent of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as
third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four

companies, by virtue of an old charter, are oblig
city, and its liberties, which they call riding the
occaſion the citizens vie with each other in ſhow
is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſeque
families. In Dublin there are two large theatres,
filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſ
city are eighteen pariſh churches, eight chapel
French, and one for Dutch proteſtants, ſeven preſby
two for methodiſts, two for quakers, and ſixteen Ro
A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids
with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte;
tics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who hi
and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every
the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others
more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way
ſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegan
and if he extends his view over the whole kingd
vinced that works of ornament and public utility
couraged than in Ireland, chiefly through the muni

It has, however, been matter of ſurpriſe, that,
national improvement, few or no good inns are
land. In the capital, which may be claſſed among
cities in Europe, there is not one inn which deſer
may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for, by the
dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to
vents the gentry of England with their families
iſland: but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike
in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and
land may, by this means, become more frequented
rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally
in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets
luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with
through the whole; but in North Britain and
mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds,
enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, a
wonderful effect upon the imagination of every
however rough and unadorned with artificial beau

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ire
riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt
tains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and
all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to th
about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chi
in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef
ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ir
Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port,
bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, a
iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete th
pears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were
though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has
been eſteemed a thriving city; but it muſt be obſerv
churches, there are at this time ſix maſs-houſes, two
houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for Frenc
ſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellen
ſiderable commerce and ſhipping; and it is, more
ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this po

d ſtorekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to
ipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is com-
Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a cita-
andſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city;
Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.
port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen
to Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flou-
ire. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by ſome
n of the province, has a good harbour and caſ-
e. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually
-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having linen manu-
ping. All this extreme north part of Ireland
tland, that they are in ſight of each other's coaſts.
town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the
is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkil-
nentioned places, and many more (though leſs
chiefly and induſtriouſly employed in the manu-
linen-thread, to the benefit of the whole king-
t annual exportations of linen into England, is
reat annual importations from England into Ire-
render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland
bſentees, leſs grievous to her.
tains no ſtrong places, according to the modern
cation, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that
necures to military officers. The chief are Lon-
e Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon,
Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Marybo-
Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy-
ous denominations, who have pecuniary provi-
nent.
ed, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any pub-
e with thoſe to be found in countries where ſove-
reſide; but it has ſome elegant public buildings,
e taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The
d ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mention-
d elegant pieces of architecture, and many no-
nd other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland.
and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of
ficent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance
In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this king-
get the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are
eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

ANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are li-
, and cambrics, horſes, and black cattle, beef,
anned leather, calf-ſkins dried, tallow, butter,
d cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper-
iſh, rabbit-ſkins and fur, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins,
her particulars. In the year 1799, the exports
d to 4,575,256l. and her imports to 4,396,009l.
d their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury,
ght; and their lord-lieutenants and their courts
ged them by their examples, and, while they are
nake uſe of no other.

COMPANIES.] The Dublin Society for the encou-
ures and commerce, was incorporated in 1750.

The linen-hall, erected at Dublin, is under as j
as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Irelan
titled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and
other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, t
Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king,
act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as En
now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ i
ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, a
in their laws. For, after the conqueſt of Irel
the laws of England were received and ſworn to
ſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland
ed, and governed, continued in a ſtate of depend
ceſſary that it ſhould conform to, and be oblige
ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forg
diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought nec
declare how that matter ſtood; and therefore, b
I. it was declared, "that the kingdom of Irelan
nate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crow
being inſeparably united thereto; and that t
the conſent of the lords and commons of Great
hath power to make laws to bind the people
termination of the Britiſh parliament, however,
ſatisfaction among the Iriſh, who at length, afte
ing their own ſtrength by means of their volu
encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties
miniſtration in England, the Iriſh obtained in th
repeal of the above galling ſtatute, which was c
ciation on the part of the parliament of Great Br
legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it
regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame
A chief governor, who generally goes by the nam
ſent over from England by the king, whom he rep
is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enla
king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On
honourable office, his letters patent are publicly
chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths befor
the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is de
and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by th
members of the privy-council, the peers and nobl
ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and h
licly without being attended by a body of horſe-g
reſpect to his authority, his train, and ſplendor,
Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur
He has a council compoſed of the great officers o
the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archb
barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is ple
parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſup
convened by the king's writ, and generally ſits onc
ſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords, and comm
many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of
are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being proper
number of commo ns amounts to about three hundr

ajeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered often-
tation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland is, in
that of England, partial and imperfect. The acts
of lords and commons are ſent to England for the
when, if approved of by his majeſty and council,
eal of England, and are returned. An union with
der diſcuſſion in the Iriſh parliament; it has been
es, and will probably be carried into effect in the
ar 1801.

iſtribution of juſtice, there are in Ireland four terms
e deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice,—
s bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high
l counties were formerly choſen by the people, but
by the lord-lieutenant. From this general view, it
il and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame
land.

Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary
es, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying
poſes: but there is, beſides this, a private revenue
ient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and
wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the
granted by parliament; and in this the crown has
property that a ſubject has in his own freehold.
revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to amount to two
f which the Iriſh complain greatly, and juſtly, that
granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees.
e alſo granted by their own parliament for more va-
le improvement of their country and civiliſing the
e inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches,
nt ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour
patriotiſm of that parliament.

ins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denomina-
abric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling
r thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh
matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

ENGTH.] In conſequence of the late rebellion, and
nch invaſion, a very conſiderable military force is now
; conſiſting of regular troops and militia from Eng-
, and yeomanry. The following is the number of
Iriſh houſe of commons to be maintained for the pre-

| | |
|---|---|
| Regular force - - | 45,839 |
| Militia - - - | 27,104 |
| Yeomanry - - - | 53,557 |
| Total - | 126,500 |

PATRICK.] This order was inſtituted February 5, and
the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March,
of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions.
nts of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand ma-
and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the arch-
the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter
e knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick,
obes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united
ſs, with the motto round, *Quis ſeparabit?* 1783, faſtened

by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. A ſtar of c
it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been car
antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that
country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and au
of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope
ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of
1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries c
to 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which ti
colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſet
introduced the Phœnician language and letters int
that however it might have been peopled ſtill earli
tain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of M
of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed from their days
delians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will
large on the dark and conteſted parts of the Iriſh h
obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth ce
apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in
Chriſtianity in this country, though there had bee
aries here long before, by whoſe means it had made
greſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this
occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of Englan
795 and 798, the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they
lings, invaded the coaſt of Ireland, and were the fi
edifices in that kingdom. The common habitatio
that time, were hurdles covered with ſtraw and r
few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſe
the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Lime
Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in
which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the
The natives, about the year 962, ſeem to have call
the Anglo Saxon king Edgar, who had then a co
power; and this might have given occaſion for hi
king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Du
time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gav
veral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen
the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of Engl
of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to
to this by the provocation he had received from ſom
tains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to hi
ſign was patroniſed by the pope, and a fair pretext c
offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrou
ſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all h
carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A
formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor (who
paramount king of Ireland), he was driven from hi
refuge in the court of Henry II. who promiſed to
taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England,
the petty kings depending on him, who were very r
who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermo
liſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of
Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Thoſe noble
expedition upon much the ſame principles as the N
lords did the conqueſt of England under William I.

ermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers re-
of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year, Strong-
th a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.
nts of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin,
e ineffectual oppoſition made by the king O'Connor,
ſundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers: but Mac Turkil, the
ſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot,
e jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtates in
ales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh
ime, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin,
Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and
eft him, and the city was reduced to great extremity,
iſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to
peaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs,
nto his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts he held.
ow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet,
ake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege;
d the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

ry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers,
f his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not
y princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but
oderick O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended
ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſe-
he paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will,
ep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dub-
rcelled out the ſtates of Ireland, as William the Con-
in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a
ion at Dublin, as nearly ſimilar as poſſible to that of Eng-
returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony
ublin, with all the liberties, free cuſtoms, and charters,
s of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to
the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh al-
ch eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards, and
ne reaſons,—the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives,
es that prevailed among their princes or leaders.
e title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185,
ſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman cour-
ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful
o were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Eng-
was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any
he affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion,
his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged
of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers,
that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter,
in the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. We find,
he deſcendents of the ancient princes in other places
e than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their
and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own
d this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of
unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity,
very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during
they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Ed-
d, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great
cted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the
bert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh in-

tereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of t
allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruc
brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, w
peated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and
by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king
narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younge
have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty,
defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh gene
Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and
cellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. commo
renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great
on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke
Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſu
rous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; a
1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having marri
Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſib
inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of E
he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompli
at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing co
one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was,
ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 13
finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in
abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland
34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made
the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compli
tion, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richa
hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ,
honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he b
tirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after havin
deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh e
land, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant, the
who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army agai
tives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves up
was during this expedition that the duke of Lancaſter
land; and Richard, upon his return, finding himſelf
Engliſh ſubjects on account of his tyranny, and that h
pend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm
houſe of York; and, upon the revival of that family's cla
embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſm
nant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond part
herents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Ir*
obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VI
of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duk
they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pret
eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, be
their attempt to invade England. This made them ſom
at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding hi
tences to the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward
however, at laſt recogniſed as king by the Iriſh; and, i
pages, under the hiſtory of England, the reader may le
his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation toward
and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to ta
of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the de

tion of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, mond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting ach other: but they were tampered with by the em- pon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of rd-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who puty, and was won over by the emperor, but was at yburn. After this the houſe of Auſtria found their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among

1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pre- own of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the is claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He at of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not e. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native government than ever had been known; and even tended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of llegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone. wever, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by re- and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of nies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Eu- ted inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, n of Edward VI; but it is remarkable that the Refor- ce in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no op- Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of ut they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. iſputes ſhe had with the Roman-catholics, both at home re her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spa- themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are Engliſh hiſtory.

uty Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Eng- ave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in eating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing r to England, where he was pardoned by queen Eliza- This lenity, ſhown to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the henſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ire- confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the e pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs as. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608, they in- lim O'Dogherty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed and his adherents were taken and executed. The at- Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Eli- in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of one, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh and

enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantati
Ireland, which, from the moſt rebellious province
became, for many years, the moſt quiet and induſtr

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and ne
be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign o
Iriſh Roman-catholics in general were influenced
hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefath
the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore enter
deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacreing all the Engliſh
kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unha
broke out between the king and his parliaments in
land. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the E
at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into th
however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſch
but authors have not agreed as to the numbers wh
perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſ
of the more moderate have eſtimated the numbers
40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000,
miniſhed that number*. What followed in conſequ
lion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell,
cruelties of the Iriſh papiſts upon themſelves, belong
England. It is certain that they ſuffered ſo ſeverely
quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucce
James II. even after the Revolution took place, found
land; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſta
there, he might remount his throne: but he was decei
puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment.
of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the
victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a
on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religi
ties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victori
would have been re-inſtated on the throne, and noth
expected than that, being irritated by oppoſition, v
enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would hav
all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbit
before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 me
of 33,000, but advantageouſly ſituated. James, it is tr
head of an undiſciplined rabble: but his French aux
from behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged,
left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a bra

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account o
lions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and
parliament, which gave them away, been ſtrictly enforc
have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many
occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The frie
lution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently grat
forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman-catholics n
forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſho
between the Roman-catholic and the proteſtant intereſt
fore thought prudent to relax the reins of government,

* Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practiſed
the proteſtants, ſays, "by ſome computations, thoſe who periſhed by
' are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred tho
moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account, they muſt have
of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

o rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a
irmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The
ſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman-catholics,
ns taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the
knowledge and the arts have made in that country,
iniſhed the popiſh intereſt. The ſpirit of induſtry has
to know their own ſtrength and importance; to which
circumſtances have concurred. All her ports were
exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of
nd of late years, acts of parliament have been made
permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter,
w, from Ireland to Great Britain.
ome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place
eland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants
aboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence
and injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England,
trade. Theſe reſtraints had injured Ireland, without
Britain. The Iriſh had been prohibited from manu-
wn wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory
conſequence of which was, that the Iriſh wool was
to France, and the people of that country were thereby
us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a
e. An embargo had alſo been laid on the exportation
m Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to
The diſtreſſes of the Iriſh manufacturers, as well as thoſe
had likewiſe been much increaſed by the conſequences
war. Theſe circumſtances occaſioned great murmuring
me attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants
in the Britiſh parliament, but for ſome time without
artiality in favour of the trade of England prevented
g done to Ireland. But ſeveral incidents, which hap-
s, at length operated ſtrongly in favour of that king-
large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn
order to be employed in the American war, a confi-
of Iriſh gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other perſons,
d themſelves into volunteer companies and aſſociations,
of Ireland againſt any foreign invaders. By degrees,
ſſociations became numerous and well-diſciplined; and
vered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights
as to defend themſelves againſt foreign enemies. When
iations became numerous and formidable, the Iriſh be-
higher tone than that to which they had before been
d it was ſoon manifeſt, that their remonſtrances met
ention, both from their own parliament and from that
. The latter, on the 11th of May, 1779, preſented an
ing, recommending to his majeſty's moſt ſerious conſi-
reſſed and impoveriſhed ſtate of the loyal and well-de-
f Ireland, and deſiring him to direct that there ſhould
laid before parliament ſuch particulars relative to the
factures of Great Britain and Ireland as ſhould enable
dom to purſue effectual meaſures for promoting the
h, wealth, and commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects in
To this addreſs the king returned a favourable anſwer;
the ſame year, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament alſo
ſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared, that nothing

but granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from r
ſtanding which, it being ſoon after ſuſpected, by many
that kingdom, that the members of their parliament
themſelves with vigour in promoting the intereſts of th
daring and numerous mob aſſembled before the parl
Dublin, crying out for a *free trade* and *a ſhort money-bill*.
the members, and endeavoured to compel them to ſwear
ſupport the intereſt of their country by voting for a ſh
and they demoliſhed the houſe of the attorney-general.
length ſubſided: and two Iriſh money-bills for ſix m
ſent over to England, where they paſſed the great ſeal
mediately returned, without any diſſatisfaction being e
vernment at this limited grant.

In the mean-time the members of the oppoſition in t
liament very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an im
tion to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and
with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide of the qu
enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, tha
aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to forty thouſan
ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well
coutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and which after
to eighty thouſand. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared for ſ
undetermined what part they ſhould act in this importan
the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſ
America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Brit
induced the firſt lord of the treaſury to bring in ſuch bil
culated to afford effectual commercial relief to the peop
Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts
which had prohibited the exportation of woollen manu
Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingd
countries had been reſtrained; and it was likewiſe enacte
between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America and th
and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, ſhould
be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimil
and reſtrictions with that carried on between Great Britai
colonies and ſettlements.

Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with m
exultation in that kingdom: and the Iriſh nation being
their requiſitions reſpecting trade, now began alſo to aim
conſtitutional reformations: and in various counties and
land, the right of the Britiſh parliament to make laws,
bind that kingdom, was denied in public reſolutions. By
ſpirit which had been manifeſted by the Iriſh parliament ſe
to ſubſide; and a remarkable inſtance of this was, their
perpetual mutiny-bill, for the regulation of the Iriſh a
that of England had always been paſſed, with a true
caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaime
ſome of the Iriſh patriots; and it is indeed not eaſy to cle
liament from the charge of inconſiſtency: but this bill wa
repealed, and the commercial advantages afforded them b
in their favour greatly contributed to promote the proſpe
land. As before obſerved, by the act repealing the ſtatut
of George I. they were fully and completely emancipat
juriſdiction of the Britiſh parliament; and the appellant ju
the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes was likewiſe given

3, the government, the nobility, and the people of
each other in countenancing and giving an aſylum
of the Geneveſe who were baniſhed from their city,
voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty,
mit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens, ſupported
France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the
ſurd was allotted for their reception, a town was
tled *New Geneva*, and a ſum of money granted for
ſary buildings. Theſe preparations for their accom-
however, rendered ultimately uſeleſs, by ſome miſ-
ot fully comprehended) which aroſe between the par-
eme accordingly fell to the ground.
ion of the unhappy malady with which the king was
ls and commons of Ireland came to a reſolution to ad-
f Wales, requeſting him to take upon him the govern-
dom during his majeſty's indiſpoſition, under the ſtyle
*Regent of Ireland*, and to exerciſe and adminiſter, ac-
ws and the conſtitution of the realm, all the royal au-
tions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government
g. The marquis of Buckingham (being then lord-
ng declined preſenting the addreſs, as contrary to his
s, the two houſes reſolved on appointing delegates
ords appointed the duke of Leinſter, and the earl of
the commons, four of their members. The delegates
don, and, in February, 1789, preſented the addreſs
neſs, by whom they were moſt graciouſly received;
wing, to the infinite joy of all his ſubjects, recovered
indiſpoſition, the prince returned them an anſwer
warmeſt ſentiments of regard for the kingdom, and
parliament, for the generous manner in which they
g him with the regency, though the happy recovery
r had now rendered his acceptance of it unneceſſary.
t of Ireland has extended liberal indulgences to the
of that kingdom, by eſtabliſhing the legality of inter-
n them and the proteſtants, by admitting them to the
law, and the benefit of education, and by removing
pon their induſtry in trade and manufactures. A re-
ce in the corn trade with Britain has been eſtabliſhed.
has been made in checking the immoderate uſe of
s; and ſome wiſe inſtitutions have been ordained for
f charitable foundations.
93, in conſequence of the conceſſions of government,
egiſlature, by which the Roman-catholics, being free-
tled to vote for members to ſerve in parliament. The
d have been leſs ſucceſsful in their attempts to procure
ament itſelf, as, notwithſtanding the reſolution in the
ſeſſion to inquire into the ſtate of the repreſentation,
has been done; the times, it is alleged, diſcouraging
s, from the juſt dread of ruinous or hurtful ones.
ng the catholics of Ireland had been reſtored, in ſome
civil rights, by the conceſſion of the elective franchiſe,
r that either their own leaders or their parliamentary
atisfied with what had been granted, or were likely to
h leſs than a total repeal of all remaining diſqualifica-

tions; and when in the beginning of the ye
was appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland,
Portland party to adminiſtration, they conſi
as abſolutely conceded by the miniſtry. A
appointed to bring forward a petition to par
remaining diſqualifications. Notice of this
the miniſter, ſtating at the ſame time his ov
neceſſity of conceſſion, as a meaſure not onl
public tranquillity. To this no anſwer was
of February Mr. Grattan moved for leave
further relief of his majeſty's ſubjects profe
religion; and after a feeble oppoſition, leav
trigues, however, of another political party,
Mr. Beresford, a gentleman who had united
that of his ſon, the important and diſcordant
miſſioner of the treaſury—of revenue—count
ſtore-keeper, and banker—the meaſure was
william ſuddenly recalled. His lordſhip le
the 25th of March, which day was obſerved
general mourning: the ſhops were ſhut; no
and the citizens appeared in deep mournin
number of reſpectable gentlemen, dreſſed in
from his excellency's carriage, and drew it
lordſhip wiſhed, as uſual on ſuch occaſions, t
with the nobleſt enthuſiaſm, the offer was r
The military had been ordered out, in expe
bance; but nothing appeared among the p
emotions of ſorrow, and the utmoſt order and

Earl Camden, who was appointed to ſucceed
in Dublin on the 31ſt of March. The whole
was now changed; all ideas of conceſſion on
were abandoned, and coercive meaſures alone
complaints. Of this harſh and unyielding ſ
diſaffected took advantage to promote their de
numbers of their adherents.

About the beginning of the year 1791, the
become ſo notorious under the name of *United*
the oſtenſible principles of which were parliame
they choſe to term catholic emancipation, or a
catholics to all the privileges of Iriſh ſubjects.
have owed its origin to a perſon whoſe life has
his treaſonable intrigues, Mr. Theobald Wolfe T
certainly evinced much ability and political
views of the authors and leaders, which, latterly
been no leſs than to effect a total ſeparation of t
Britain, and the erection of a republic, after the p
tection of France, were probably ſcarcely miſtru
of the members. The firſt and principal articl
ſociety was conſtituted for the purpoſe of forwar
affection, a community of rights, and an union of p
of every religious perſuaſion, and thereby to obta
in the legiſlature, founded on the principles of civ
gious liberty." For ſeveral years this ſociety, fro
cumſpection with which its affairs were conducte

nment. But the violence of party diſputes which
ll of earl Fitzwilliam conſiderably increaſed the
ts, and added to them ſeveral perſons of abilities
cular Mr. Arthur O'Connor, who had diſtinguiſhed
pport of earl Fitzwilliam's adminiſtration in the
r. M'Nevin, who had been chairman of the com-
he claims ſet forth in the catholic petition; and
pulent citizen of Dublin, who had been an active
e principles. From the confeſſion of theſe very
however, that when they joined the ſociety the
were no longer confined to parliamentary or conſti-
kind; ſince in the year 1795, through the medium
her Iriſh refugees who had fled to France, a regu-
as opened between the French directory, and the
d in the courſe of the ſummer of 1796, lord Ed-
eeded to Switzerland, and had an interview, near
with general Hoche, when it is believed the whole
was finally adjuſted. An attempt to carry it into
in the December following, when the French fleet
afforded by a thick fog to elude the vigilance of
whom they had been for ſeveral months blocked up
for Ireland. But the fleet was diſperſed by violent
however, conſiſting of eight two-deckers, and nine
rent claſſes, anchored, on the 24th, in Bantry bay.
weather preventing any attempt to effect a land-
ne coaſt on the 27th in the evening; but an officer
e driven on ſhore in a boat belonging to one of the
officer, upon examination, ſtated that the fleet, when
ted of about fifty ſail, and that it had on board
d men, commanded by general Hoche. A conſider-
m was excited in Ireland by the appearance of this
e people in general in this part of the kingdom
termined loyalty, and manifeſted the greateſt readi-
ſt the enemy wherever they might attempt a deſcent.
ne expedition under Hoche did not, however, diſ-
rs of the Iriſh Union; they, on the contrary, en-
mly to cement their alliance with France, and eſ-
communication and correſpondence with that coun-
ments were made for an invaſion, and Dr. M'Nevin,
anſmitted to the French government a memorial, in
hat 150,000 United Iriſhmen were enrolled and or-
vince of Ulſter. During the ſummer of 1797, great
therefore made for a ſecond attempt, both at Breſt
it having been determined that the Dutch ſhould
land forces to co-operate in this deſign. But this
abortive by the memorable victory of lord Duncan
et, on the 11th of October of that year.

g of the year 1798, Mr. O'Connor came to England,
as it afterwards appeared, of going over to France,
h John Binns, an active member of the London Cor-
y, James Coigley, an Iriſh prieſt, and a perſon of the
ing, however, ſuſpected, they were apprehended, and
, where they were all acquitted except Coigley, on
ound a treaſonable, though extremely abſurd paper
n addreſs from the "Secret Committee of England t

the Executive Directory of France." He was there executed. O'Connor, after his acquittal, was det charge of treaſon preferred againſt him, and ſent h

In the courſe of theſe different negociations wit violence of ſome of the diſaffected party in Ireland reſtrained from breaking out into open inſurrection for the promiſed aſſiſtance from the Gallic republi overruled by thoſe who had more coolneſs and cauti ment of Ireland, in the mean time, received only plexed intelligence of theſe proceedings, which ap conducted with ſo much art and ſecrecy as to prev from diſcovering, for a conſiderable time, the real of the ſociety. But at length they received informat meeting was to be held at the houſe of a perſon of ander, at Belfaſt, on the 14th of April, 1797; and colonel Barber, with a detachment of ſoldiers, proc to the place of meeting, where he found two ſocie actually ſitting, and ſeized their papers and minu were the printed declaration and conſtitution of the various reports from provincial and county commi other important documents, which left them no lo ſpecting the extent and the views of this formidable co the ſame time, likewiſe, the magiſtrates in other p dom diſcovered other papers that were circulated by which ſerved to confirm the diſcoveries already ma additional light on the proceedings of the conſpirat

The moſt active and vigorous meaſures were now ad ment; a very conſiderable addition was made to the the kingdom; a bill was paſſed, prohibiting ſeditio habeas corpus act was ſuſpended; whole counties wer of the king's peace, and ſeizures made of great quant arms. In the enforcement of theſe meaſures, many and even cruelty, appear to have been committed government; but it ſhould be at the ſame time reme merous acts of atrocious barbarity were likewiſe com bels. The loyaliſts knew that if the ſchemes of thei ſucceſsful, the plunder and confiſcation of their prop evil they had to fear. The concealment and obſcuri they knew to be imminent might well excite a dread them incapable of liſtening to the dictates of moderat ſome caſes, of juſtice.

Theſe rigorous meaſures were, likewiſe, in ſome de juſtified by the more complete diſcovery which gover made of the traitorous deſigns and proceedings of the other members of it, was a Mr. Reynolds, who had for manufacturer of ſome note in the city of Dublin. He an United Iriſhman in February, 1797, and in the win pointed treaſurer for the county of Kildare, in which he a colonel in the rebel army. This perſon, whether n and returning love for his country, or by other motives, to inquire, diſcloſed to government, about the latter 1798, the nature and extent of the conſpiracy, and a gates being ſummoned for the 12th of March, at the ver Bond, he gave information of it, in conſequence of the delegates were apprehended, with their ſecretar

M'Nevin, counſellor Emmett, and ſome other active
ieties, were taken into cuſtody. A warrant had been
Edward Fitzgerald, but he eſcaped; he was after-
ſcovered in the place of his concealment, when, on
entering the room, the unhappy nobleman made a
he wounded two of the principal of them, Mr.
captain Ryan, dangerouſly; and was himſelf ſo ſe-
hat he languiſhed a few days only before he expired.
he delegates gave a fatal blow to all the plans of the
A new directory was choſen, but their proceedings
l by another informer, a captain Armſtrong, who had
into the conſpiracy with the intention of diſcovering
betraying them to government. The confuſion and
he rebels were thrown by the diſcovery of their plots,
ding of their leaders, determined them to make a
nd a general inſurrection was reſolved on by the mi-
to take place on the 23d of March. But government
formed of the intentions of the conſpirators, cauſed
ncipal of them to be apprehended; on the 19th and
ounty of Dublin were proclaimed, by the lord-lieu-
, in a ſtate of inſurrection; the guards of the caſtle
al objects of attack were trebled, and the whole city
into a garriſon. The infatuated multitude, however,
t to the directions they had received from their leaders,
ppointed in various parts of the country, and, on the
great force, their number amounting to not leſs than
eighbourhood of Wexford and Enniſcorthy, and at-
pieces the whole of a party of the North Cork militia,
ote, and two privates. They then made an attack,
he town of Enniſcorthy, which they carried ſword in
e 30th made themſelves maſters of Wexford, where
m priſon Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Harvey, who was
nated to the chief command of their army. Under
eral, they attacked the town of New Roſs, but were
eat ſlaughter. They were likewiſe repulſed in their
other places. The royal forces, however, ſuffered a
of June, when the ſtrong poſt of the rebels being at-
Walpole, he was unfortunately killed in the beginning
his corps, being in a ſituation in which it was unable
d to retire to Arklow. Encouraged by this ſucceſs,
on the 9th, preſented itſelf before Arklow, where
n commanded a conſiderable body of the king's troops;
that general had taken, and the diſpoſitions he made,
hey were defeated with great loſs.
of June, general Lake made his grand attack on the
f the rebels on Vinegar-hill, near Enniſcorthy, having
ted troops from every part till he had almoſt ſurrounded
aintained their ground obſtinately for an hour and a
gth fled with precipitation, leaving behind them a great
d and wounded, and thirteen ſmall pieces of ordnance
ires.
after this action, a large body of the king's forces ad-
ford, which general Moore entered ſo opportunely, as
own from being laid in aſhes. The rebels before they
own, offered to treat; but general Lake refuſed to ſign

any terms with rebels with arms in their hands; thoug multitude he promiſed pardon, on condition of de leaders and returning to their allegiance. The rebel tr evacuated the town; their general, Bagenal Harvey, ſoon after the battle of New Roſs, but being diſcovere ſome others in a cave, he was tried by a court-marti on the bridge of Wexford.

In the beginning of June alarming commotions likew the North of Ireland, and the inſurrection ſoon becam in the counties of Down and Antrim; but on the 12 ceived a complete defeat at Ballynahinch, where the four hundred men. They fought with great obſti leader Munro was taken priſoner, and afterwards exec

The Engliſh government, in the mean time, thoug with the conduct of lord Camden, reſolved to give Ir lord-lieutenant; and the marquis Cornwallis arrived capacity on the 20th of June, and immediately aſſu government. The conduct of his lordſhip was tempora On the 17th of July he ſent a meſſage to the houſe of Caſtlereagh, intimating that he had received his maj to acquaint them "that he had ſignified his grac granting a general pardon for all offences committe certain day, upon ſuch conditions, and with ſuch exce be compatible with the general ſafety."—But "theſe c the repentent were not to preclude meaſures of vigou ſtinate."

A ſpecial commiſſion was now opened in Dublin for principal delinquents,—ſeveral of whom were tried Among them Mr. Oliver Bond was tried, convicted, and in his fate the other conſpirators began to foreſee rebellion appeared to be completely cruſhed; the fugi every where returning to their allegiance, and deliverin and no hope remained of any effectual aſſiſtance from ſituation a negociation was opened between the Iriſh the ſtate priſoners, the iſſue of which was, that govern to pardon Mr. Bond, and deſiſt from any farther pro other leaders of the conſpiracy, who on their parts eng full confeſſion of all the proceedings and plans of th which they were to be permitted to tranſport themſelve not at war with his majeſty. The information they co laid before the Iriſh houſe of commons, and has furniſh the brief account here given. Mr. Oliver Bond ſerv only a few days, and Mr. Arthur O'Connor, Dr. M' reſt, after having been a conſiderable time confined i removed to priſons in Scotland, where they ſtill remai

After the failure of the expedition under general Hoc tunately for Great Britain, made no attempt to aſſiſt the till it was too late; and the aid they then ſent was ver adequate to the end propoſed. On the 22d of Auguſt and tranſports from France appeared in Killala Bay, a a thouſand men, with a quantity of arms and ammunitio of inſurgents who joined the invaders was not conſid French general Humbert, by his conduct, proved him ability, and worthy of command where there was a fa

anced without loſs of time to Caſtlebar, where general ing his forces, attacked, and compelled him to retreat ſix pieces of cannon and a few men, after which he ad- Tuam; but on the 7th of September the marquis up with the French in the vicinity of Caſtlebar, when and the next morning, after a ſlight reſiſtance, ſurren- on. The rebels who had joined them were diſperſed, ber of them killed or taken. Another effort was after- the French to ſupport, or rather to rekindle the flames Ireland. On the 17th of September a fleet ſailed from g of one ſhip of the line (the Hoche) and eight frigates, l ammunition on board, deſtined for Ireland; but this ompletely defeated by the ſquadron under the command laſe Warren, as has been already related in our ſummary England.

aining troops of rebels, who were diſperſed among the ntains, now ſucceſſively laid down their arms. A chief Holt, at the head of a number of banditti, continued for commit depredations in the mountainous parts of the low; but at laſt it was believed that he made terms with d was permitted to ſave his life by relinquiſhing for country.

e of the number of thoſe who loſt their lives in this de- muſt neceſſarily be vague and uncertain. Some have y thouſand, while others have ſwelled it to a hundred whom they ſay, nine tenths were of the inſurgents; the iſts being about ten thouſand men. Slaughter and de- length procured a kind of peace; but the great problem by what means the flames of diſcord may be prevented et afreſh. As the moſt effectual preventative of a repe- alamities, government has recommended, and appears fect, a legiſlative union of the two kingdoms. A pro- h an union was ſubmitted to the parliament of England he ſame day (January 22, 1799), and in both houſes of liament, the addreſs, which is conſidered as an appro- eaſure, paſſed without diviſion. A ſimilar addreſs was iſh houſe of lords by a majority of thirty-three, but re- mmons by a majority of two, which the next day in- gainſt the meaſure, which was therefore laid aſide for vernment, however, by no means totally abandoned it; ning of the next ſeſſion, on the 15th of January, 1800, was again ſubmitted to the parliament of Ireland; when he houſe of lords paſſed without a debate, and, after an ſion in the commons, which laſted till the noon of the was approved by a majority of forty-two. The articles which have ſince been voted, import,

ingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland ſhall, upon the 1ſt . which ſhall be in the year of our Lord 1801, and for ever into one kingdom, by the name of the United Kingdom in and Ireland:"—"that of the peers of Ireland at the ion, four ſpiritual lords, by rotation of ſeſſions, and mporal peers for life, ſhall be the number to ſit and uſe of lords; and one hundred commoners (viz. two for Ireland, two for the city of Dublin, two for the city of for each of the thirty-two moſt conſiderable cities,

towns, and boroughs), be the number of the representa
in the houſe of commons of the parliament of the Unite

It is alſo provided by theſe articles "that, for the ſp
years after the union ſhall take place, the contribution c
and Ireland reſpectively towards the expenditure of the u
in each year ſhall be defrayed in the proportion of
Great Britain, and two parts for Ireland," this proporti
ration of that time to be ſubject to reviſion and regulat
conſiderations.

That this plan of union will be ultimately carried in
doubt appears now to remain. How far it will prove a
diſtreſſed condition and diſcontents of the poor, time mu
firſt view it ſeems difficult to ſay how a legiſlative union
cauſe of the civil commotions which have lately diſtracte
nate kingdom; how it can leſſen religious prejudices, or
it ſeems rather calculated to increaſe, the expenditure of
at a diſtance from the country whence it is derived. Ye
denied that unity in government has many advantages,
eſſentially neceſſary; and that a cloſe connection and firm
of the three kingdoms, with an impartial and equal diſtr
tection and rights, fairly granted and faithfully maintai
to infuſe new life into every part of the united nation, w
the proſperity, the wealth, and the power of the whole.

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# FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh iſles, we ſhall now
continent, beginning with the extenſive and powerf
France, being the neareſt to England, though part of
Poland lies to the northward of France.

## SITUATION and EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 | between | 5 Weſt and 8 E |
| Breadth 500 | | 42 and 51 North |

Containing 160,374 ſquare miles, with 155 inhabitan

BOUNDARIES.] It is bounded by the Engliſh Channe
therlands on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and
by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, wh
from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The ancient provinces of this kingdom
by the firſt national aſſembly into 83 departments, as foll

| Chief Towns. | Inland Departments | Chief Towns |
|---|---|---|
| Pa- ris. N.L.48°50' E. L. 2°25' | | |
| Verſailles | | |
| Melun | | |
| Beauvais | | |
| Laon | | |
| Amiens | | |
| Arras | | |
| Douay | | |
| Rouen | | |
| Caen | | |
| Alençon | | |
| Evreux | | |
| Coutance | | |
| Rennes | | |
| Nantes | | |
| Quimper | | |
| St. Brieux | | |
| Vannes | | |
| Poitiers | | |
| Fontenai-comté | | |
| Niort | | |
| Saintes | | |
| Bourdeaux | | |
| Limoges | | |
| Agen | | |
| Rodez | | |
| Perigneux | | |
| Cahors | | |
| Auch | | |
| Tarbes | | |
| Pau | | |
| Marsan | | |
| Perpignan | | |
| Toulouse | | |
| Nismes | | |
| Montpelier | | |
| Foix | | |
| Caſtres | | |
| Carcassone | | |
| Mende | | |
| Aix | | |
| Toulon | | |
| Digne | | |
| | *Lorraine.* Moselle | Metz |
| | *Lorraine.* Vosges | Epinal |
| | *Lorraine.* Meurte | Nanci |
| | *Lorraine.* Meuse | Bar-le-duc |
| | *Alsace.* Lower Rhine | Strasbourg |
| | *Alsace.* Upper Rhine | Colmar |
| | *Champagne.* Aube | Troyes |
| | *Champagne.* Marne | Châlons |
| | *Champagne.* Upper Marne | Chaumont |
| | *Champagne.* Ardennes | Mezieres |
| *Burgundy.* | *Comté.* Doubs | Besançon |
| *Burgundy.* | *Comté.* Jura | Lons le Saunier |
| *Burgundy.* | *Comté.* Upper Saone | Vesoul |
| *Burgundy.* | Cote d'Or | Dijon |
| *Burgundy.* | Saone and Loire | Macon |
| *Burgundy.* | Yonne | Auxerre |
| *Dauphiné.* | Iſere | Grenoble |
| *Dauphiné.* | Drome | Valence |
| *Dauphiné.* | Upper Alps | Gap |
| *Dauphiné.* | Ardeche | Privas |
| *Dauphiné.* | Rhone and Loire | Lyons |
| *Auvergne.* | Puy de Dome | Clermont |
| *Auvergne.* | Cantal | St. Flour |
| | Upper Loire, *Vel.* | Le Puy |
| | Coreze, *Limosin* | Tulles |
| | Creuse, *Marche* | Gueret |
| | Chapente, *Aug.* | Angoulême |
| | Allier, *Bourbon* | Moulins |
| *Berry.* | Cher | Bourges |
| *Berry.* | Ain | Bourg |
| *Berry.* | Indre | Chateaurux |
| | Indre & Loire, *To.* | Tours |
| *Marne.* | Sarte | Le Mans |
| *Marne.* | Mayenne | Laval |
| | Maine and Loire | Angers |
| *Orleans.* | Loiret | Orléans |
| *Orleans.* | Eure and Loire | Chartres |
| *Orleans.* | Loire and Cher | Blois |
| | Nievre, *Nivernois* | Nevers |
| | Corsica Iſland | Bastia |

ginal eighty-three departments into which France
rst national assembly. But, by later decrees, the
and Loire has been divided into two departments:
e Rhône, the chief town *Lyons;* and that of the
n *Montbrisson.* Corsica has likewise been divided
: Golo, the chief town *Bastia;* and Liamone,
*io.* Savoy has also been annexed to the republic,
e department of Mont Blanc,—the chief town
kewise a part of Switzerland, lately belonging to

the bishop of Basle, by the name of the department
BLE,—the chief town *Porentrui*. The county of Ni
a department of France, by the name of the MAR
chief town *Nice*. The territory of Avignon and c
which, in the original division, were included in Co
department of VAUCLUSE,—the chief town *Avigno*
number of the departments eighty-nine, to which
more, into which they have divided Belgium, or t
lands, ceded to them by the treaty of Campo Form
ment is subdivided into *districts*, and each district

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name
*Freemen*, a German nation, restless and enterprising
Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman fo
repress them, they were permitted to settle in the co
its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perha
well fitted for every purpose of power and comm
beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants hav
of many of their natural advantages. The air,
the interior parts of the country, is in general mi
but some late authors think it is not nearly so salu
ed; and it must be acknowledged, that the French
successful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain
in favour of their own country. It must indeed
weather is more clear and settled than in Englan
provinces, however, the winters are more intense
habitants not so well supplied with firing, which in
wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excel
duces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of li
fruits have a higher flavour than those of England;
turage nor tillage is comparable to ours. The he
burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure; and
duces as much rye and chesnuts as serve to subsis
ants: but the chief misfortune attending the French
habitants, having been uncertain of enjoying the ful
bour, have not applied themselves sufficiently to ag
ture has done wonders for them; and both animal
ductions are found there in vast plenty.

Notwithstanding great efforts made in agriculture
remains uncultivated; and although some provin
Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequen
deed all Europe, one year with another, does not pro
for its own consumption: and it is necessary to hav
luxuriant harvests of America.

The French had endeavoured to supply the loss
precarious title to their lands, by instituting academ
and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in
expedients, however successful they may be in partic
never become of national utility in any but a free
husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labo
better supplied than France is with wholesome spr
which the inhabitants make excellent use, by the help
for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and
tinct notice will be hereafter taken.

] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are
ivide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide
; the Vosges, which separate the department of that
partments of Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; Mount
s France from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the late
edoc; and Mont d'Or in Puy de Dome.

AKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire,
nne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north
ing, with all its windings from its source to the sea,
about 500 miles. The Rhône flows on the south-west
n runs on due south, till it falls into the Mediterra-
ne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course
nd has a communication with the Mediterranean by
the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise,
west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and
glish Channel at Havre. To these we may add the
into the Rhône at Lyons; the Charente, which rises
rance, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at
Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boun-
ance and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the
ge. The Somme, which rises in the department of
ng by St. Quentin, Peronne, and Amiens, falls into the
below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps,
dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Medi-
of Nice. The Adour rises in the department of the
, and, running from east to west by Tarbes and Dax,
y of Biscay, below Bayonne.

antage, both in commerce and conveniency, which arises
those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial
ls which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis
Languedoc was begun in the year 1660, and completed in
ntended for a communication between the Ocean and the
, for the speedier passage of the French fleet: but though
n, at an immense expense, for 100 miles, over hills and
n through a mountain in one place, it has not answered
By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water
St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places.
Orléans is another noble work, and runs a course of
es, to the immense benefit of the public revenue.
s with other canals of the like kind, which render her
on inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

e found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill
hich the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another
uy de Dome; and one at La Besse, into which if a stone
causes a noise like thunder.

ATERS, AND } The waters of Bareges, which lie near
AL SPRINGS. } the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean
ve of late been preferred to all the others of France, for
f health. The best judges think, however, that the cures
them are more owing to their accidental success with
sons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the vir-
ters. The waters of Sultzbach, in the department of the
are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone.
ot far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and

baths, to which people resort, as to the English autumn. Forges, in the department of the Lower for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cu structions. It would be endless to enumerate all t tended mineral wells in France, as well as many but there is one near Aigne, in Puy de Dome, w and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds th stantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many u would be very productive if duly attended to; b yield minerals sufficient for consumption; steel alo annual value of 125,000l. The late province of contain veins of gold and silver. Alsace has mines but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alab jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. every part of the kingdom, and *sea-salt* is now procu sive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At La there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine o for melting of metals, and for dyeing, particularly and in the province of Anjou are several quarries Some excellent turquoises (the only gem that F found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to ke ble and free stone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } France roots, in al and sallads, and in excellent fruits of all kinds, part prunes, chesnuts, cider in the northern provinces southern. It produces annually, though not enou above twelve million pounds of tobacco, besides hem fron, and many drugs. Alsace, Burgundy, Lorrain Pyrenean mountains, supply it plentifully with timb Silk is so plentifully produced, besides what is imp considerable trade. The cattle and horses are nei nor very good; but it has many flocks of fine sheep consumption, that both sheep and wool are importe Gatinois produces great quantities of saffron. The w Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other province well known, that they need only be mentioned. It serve, that though they differ very sensibly in their t yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Cl dy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontinia constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which of them is not adapted.

Wine, the staple, is made to the value of 15,000,00 than an eighth part of which, besides brandy and vin Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the Mediterranean; but the consumption is so great imported from Italy; the inferior sort supplies the s of which there are thirty-six at Marseilles.

Oak, elm, ash, and other timber, common in Eu France; but it is said that the internal parts of the ki the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhée

of Saintonge. Languedoc produces a herb called kali, , makes excellent barilla, or pot-ashes. The French ous for horticulture, but they are at present far infe- both in the management and disposition of their l capers are produced at Bourdeaux, and near Toulon. few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and ior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so l skin of the chamois, or mountain-goats, are more e of England. We know of no difference between ions of France and those of England, but that the ll served, even on the sea-coast, with salt-water fish. rable herring fishery, and one for anchovies, to the 83,000l. besides more important fisheries upon the nd Newfoundland.

e chief forests of France are those of Orléans, which res of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and nbleau, near as large; and near Morchismoir is a ht timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large num- e of them deserving the name of forests, lie in dif- out too remote from sea-carriage to be of much na-

NHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND DIVERSIONS. According to the latest and best cal- contained at the commencement of the revolution of inhabitants, It was lately supposed, by some spe- the population of France had for many years been but, upon an accurate investigation, the reverse ap- ct; though this country certainly lost a great num- abitants by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*. heir persons, are rather lower than their neighbours; roportioned and active, and more free than other na- from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated ghtly wit than personal beauty: the peasantry in ge- ly ordinary, and are best described by being con- n of the same rank in England. The nobility and themselves in the academical exercises of dancing, , in the practice of which they excel all their neigh- gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, their nd monstrous curb bridle in that exercise, and ac- lves to the English manners.

manners of the French are well known, and have been y able pens. A national vanity is their predominant y are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have y from a national weakness. It supports them under mpels them to actions to which true courage inspires is character has been conspicuous both in the higher s, where it produces excellent officers; and in the

* Henry IV. who was a protestant, and justly styled the Great, o the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which the free exercise of their religion; but his edict was revoked , with the succeeding persecutions, drove those people to Eng- ier protestant countries, where they established the silk manu- ejudice of the country that persecuted them.

common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed war against the allied powers, have exhibited prodigies

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable d sions engross too much of their conversation. Their div the same with those of the English; but their gallan different complexion. Their attention to the fair dege foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by decent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexe tended with that criminality which, to people not us ners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands su are apt to imagine about the conduct of their wives. excessively credulous and litigious: but of all people bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with though in prosperity many of them are apt to be ins trary, and imperious.

The French have been much censured for insincerity has been carried too far, and the imputation is general excess of civility, which renders their candour suspicio in private life, have certainly many amiable qualiti number of instances of generosity and disinterestedn amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to ackn they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish manners and even virtues of other nations. Before the were disposed to think very favourably of the English, and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Pope, Addison, Hume, Robertson, Richardson, and m last and present century, are sacred among the French.

With several defects, the French have many good ness of manners, attention to strangers, and a general among those in the better ranks of life.

Dress.] The French dress of both sexes is so va is needless to expatiate upon them here; but, indee cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impo it. They certainly have more invention in that partic their neighbours, and their constantly changing their finite service to their manufactures.

Religion.] By the laws of the constitution, frame tional assembly, no man was to be molested for his o rupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial Gallican church were claimed as national property, through the medium of paper money, called assignats, of the state; and the clergy made dependent upon pen ments, paid out of the national treasury; out of whic the expenses of worship, the religious, and the poor establishments were suppressed; but the friars and n to observe their vows, and nuns optionally to remain or retire upon pensions.

By the subsequent constitutions, it is declared that t minant religion in France, and that none is patronise state; but that all sects and modes of worship shall en tion. The clergy are obliged to take an oath to obser constitution*. They notify to the bishop of Rome th

* Many of the clergy, called refractory priests, from a conscien oath, have been elected from their benefices, and many of the pr bishops.

im fees, or acknowledge any subordination to his as active citizens, and are eligible to some lay- out to be principal ones.

BISHOPRICS, &c.] France, under the late mon- ontained eighteen archbishoprics, and one hun- cs. By the first national assembly it was di- litan circles, having a METROPOLITAN BISHOP, esides one for Paris. The metropolitan bishop st bishop in his circle. Appeals are made from ods.

inted to each of the eighty-three *departments*, ioceses. They were appointed by the electoral nent, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The sala- 8401. per annum. Each diocese has also a holy ars, and a vicar-general, to prepare students for s form a council for the bishop.

e chosen by the bishop from among the clergy of ne duty ten years.

hes or *curés* in the districts are confirmed by the ave been vicars to ministers five years.

s are chosen by the minister from among the diocese by the bishop.

e than two millions of non-catholics; and the tly increasing, are in proportion to the catholics. re are already many regular congregations, viz. nch and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian anabaptists, h dissidents, besides many chapels for the am- ntains many Jews.

of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his y proposal that tended to the purity and perfec- nguage. He succeeded so far as to render it the the living tongues; a circumstance that tended s and his glory; for his court and nation thereby f arts, sciences, and politeness. The French is ords radically Latin, with many German deriva- he Franks. It is now rather on the decay: its nder Lewis XIV. are, as it were, loosened: and, f writing and expressing themselves, the modern gard that purity of expression which alone can sical and permanent.

of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly in- but they are well adapted to subjects void of ele- l well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, tion.

in French is as follows:—*Nôtre Père, qui es aux tifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la onne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés. Et ne tation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi est le a gloire, aux siécles des siécles.* Amen.

LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other na- for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The gan to acquire was not of that kind which im-

proves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regul
It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which wa
pervert than to improve the faculties. But the study
Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused
French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuit
with the encouragement which the polite and learne
to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to
During this reign, many learned men appeared in Fr
distinguished themselves by their writings; among wh
Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Pe
names of Henry and Robert Stephens are also mentio
scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the
tury that the French began to write with elegance in t
The Académie Françoise was formed for this purp
their labours, considered as a body, were not so succe
been expected, some particular academicians have do
letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldon
Of this we have a remarkable example in the present
demy published a dictionary for improving the Frenc
was universally despised; Furetières, a single acade
another, that met with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The p
to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned m
and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount
per annum, have gained him more glory than all th
prises upon which he expended so many millions.
who appeared in France during this reign are too num
tioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, hav
tained a very high reputation; the first was distingu
moving the passions; the second, for majesty; ar
strength and justness of their painting, the elegance
their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. M
exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not e
haustible, and particularly in France. In works of sat
Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, pos
merit. But France has not yet produced an epic p
mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same ex
versal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay
the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of
the bar, the French are greatly our superiors; Boss
Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpet eloquen
perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly
to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and
extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most
of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV.
ment of science were not able to counterbalance the
clergy, whose interest it was to keep mankind ignor
religion and morality; and the influence of the court a
had an equal interest in concealing the natural rights
every sound principle of government. The French
fore so many good writers on moral, religious, or poli
have appeared in Great Britain. But France has prod
men, who do honour to humanity; whose career no obst
whose freedom no government, however despotic,—n

could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou
ghest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of
Cambray? Few men have done more service to re-
eir writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu,
f nations: his works are read in every country and
rever they are read, they enlighten and invigorate
And indeed the distinguished literary productions of
XV. universally breathe sentiments incompatible
r despotism; but too many of them incur the op-
religion and licentiousness.
es, the lighter kinds of poetry, and lively essays, no
d more agreeable writers: among whom we may
Argens, and Voltaire, as the most considerable.
ral Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the
in modern times. He was the first who applied
on of geometrical problems; which naturally pre-
e analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent
e flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut,
mbert; the latter of whom to the precision of a
the talents of a fine writer.
ng of the present century, the French have almost
h in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to
men of science, were he not still more remarkable
an for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a
r of nature; and, under this view, his Natural His-
of its kind.
ussin, Le Brun, and, above all, Le Sueur, did honour
XIV. They have none at present to compare with
oble kind of painting: but M. Greuse, for portraits
ces, never perhaps was excelled.
ral is better understood in France than in most other
e. Their engravings on copper-plates have been
y celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been
artists, that they are now thought to excel their
rs, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture
such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building
nd unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are
glish. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in
ce of fortification. The French were long our supe-
; though we now are their equals in this art.
yclopedia, first published in the latter years of Lewis
lished in a new form, is, perhaps, the best dictionary
ever compiled in any country.

PUBLIC COLLEGES, } Before the revolution, there
DEMIES, } were in France twenty-eight
ic colleges, as follow: Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon,
ux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Lay Fleche,
pelier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan,
ousson, Richelieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg,
, and Valence. Among these the Sorbonne at Paris
rated.
iterary establishments were supported out of the
the French Academy, Academy of Belles Lettres,
es, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Ob-
Free School of Design. Under the republic, primary,

central, and special schools have been established ; a
each canton, a central school for each department,
for the higher sciences, such as astronomy, and for t
quire a particular education for the public service, su
surgery. Education in these establishments is at t
but the scholars are maintained by their parents or f

An academy called the *National Institute* has like
the installation of which took place in the hall of the
Sciences, in the palace of the National Museum, fo
It is composed of a hundred and forty-four member
of whom were found the names of La Lande, La
Reynel, Marmontel, Volney, Bertholket, Bitaube,
academy holds four public meetings in a year ; its
out and promote the progress of the arts and scien
authority whatever over the schools.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Few cou
Italy, can
able remains of antiquity than France. Some of the
belong to the time of the Celts ; and consequently,
those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has giv
ous account of the sepulchres of their kings, which ha
so far back as Pharamond; and some of them, when
found to contain ornaments and jewels of value.
other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arc
entire is at Orange, erected on account of the vic
the Cimbri and the Teutones by Caius Marius and
After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the
light in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both
some of which are more entire than any to be met
The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Cha
at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most v
ancient architecture of any place in France. The
Garde was raised in the Augustan age, by the Roman
to convey a stream of water between two mountains
city ; it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, o
the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723.
of antiquity are found at Nismes ; but the chief are th
and the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fin
of the kind of any in Europe; but, above all, the ho
emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The
sculpture of this building are so exquisitely beautifu
even the most ignorant: and it is still entire, being
either by the ravages of time or the havoc of war.
Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of the
to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnam
about the year 356, after the same model as the ba
The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches
a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic,
which is not now known, intermixed with small
free-stone and bricks. But the most extraordinary
riosities is the subterraneous cavern at Paris. For
of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in
Paris was enlarged, the streets and suburbs exte
built on the ancient quarries from which the ston
and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities

several quarters of the city. Eight persons some in one of them, a gulf of 153 feet deep, which ex- government to cause the buildings of several quar- ropped up. All the suburbs of St. James's, Harpe- street of Tournon, stand upon the ancient quarries; n erected to support the weight of the houses; but s, towers, and steeples, now tell the eye that what wanting under the feet, so it would not require a to throw back the stones to the places from whence

ence is an obelisk of oriental granite, 52 feet high, meter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman ucts are frequent in France. The most remarkable nd Guienne; the passage cut through the middle of a on in Dauphiné is thought to be a Roman work, if quity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing ds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is ival with that great general.

odern works of art, particularly the canals, have been There are some subterraneous passages and holes, Aubin in Brittany, and Nioni in Dauphiné, really

rowns.] These are numerous in France; of which we ly Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and

ch Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and the tion in Europe, and was the master-piece of the fa- It is generally garrisoned with above ten thousand for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little nufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very con- its inhabitants amount to about sixty thousand. Every inted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French the treaty of Utrecht to demolish: but it is still a thorn the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers. ch Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified rry on very gainful manufactures.

outhward we come to the Isle of France; the capital of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so , that it may appear superfluous to mention it more par- it not that the vanity of the French has given it a ch it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the y respect, not excepting even population. Many of ve been imposed upon in this point; particularly by n the births and burials within the bills of mortality, the most populous parishes about London. Another mis- nting from births and marriages. The number of dis- kinds in and about London, who do not register the children, is very great; the registers of others are not public; and many of the poorer sort will not afford the of such a registering. Another peculiarity existing in t many of the Londoners, who can afford the expense, themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire ry, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from rtality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the

registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, religion and the police were before the revolution m strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of Lon best accounts it does not exceed seven or eight hu which is far short of the inhabitants of London and parishes.

Paris is divided into three parts,—the city, the uni which was formerly called the town. The city is old sity and the town are the new. Paris contains more magnificence than utility. Its palaces are showy, and s squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly deco fusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; bu standing its boasted police, is greatly inferior to Londo conveniences of life and the solid enjoyments of so entering into more minute disquisitions, Paris, it must paradise of splendour and dissipation. The tapestry is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre i does honour to architecture itself: it was adorned by institutions for the arts and sciences, particularly the and ennobled by the residence of the learned. The Tuil of Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of painting royal palace and library, the guildhall, and the hospital superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said t in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are and often contain a different family on every floor. T which runs through the centre of the city, is not half Thames at London; it is too far distant from the sea f of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with of any sort; over it are many stone and wooden bridg nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are gen particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the wealth and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more stance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes o mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to th reigners who visit that city; and, in truth, the greatest p of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers t from every nation and quarter of the globe. This asc doubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, the ings, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the and, above all, the purity of the air and climate in Fra these advantages, Paris in general, will not bear a co London, and the more essential circumstances of a thriv domestic trade, the cleanness of their streets, neatness especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a than the Seine, which, it is said, disagrees with strangers, their small wines. In the houses of Paris most of the brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of b with water, and swept once a day. These brick floo

* One *Gobeli*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever sinc great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manu

wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls ever, good preservatives against fire, which seldom n this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are ry or damask. The beds in general are very good, ed with tester and curtains. Their shops are but goods; and the shop-keepers and tradesmen are an people. There is a remarkable contrast between and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the cels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery , while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, rsions, and the invincible forces of their armies. The and monarque used to be also with them a favourite n, previous to the change in their political system. ever, as well as the natives of France in general, are ate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor mous. Bread, and all manner of butchers' meat and ely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine k is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common ner season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and Parisians till lately scarcely knew the use of tea; but plenty. The police of Paris used to be so well at- rrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happened; and quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so th the most polite treatment. The streets were pat- horse and foot; so judiciously stationed, that no of- e their vigilance. They likewise visited the publi- ic hour of twelve at night, to see that the company Paris no liquor could be had after that time. The nce were under the same excellent regulation, which, the rack, prevented robberies in that kingdom; but, , when robberies did happen, they were always at- ath of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted. Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine and villages; some of them, being scattered on the from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

ersailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though xpensive beyond conception, and adorned with all h, is a collection of buildings, each of exquisite archi- orming a whole agreeable to the grand and sublime gardens and water-works (which are supplied by us engines, across the Seine at Marli, about three astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and as its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and luxurious court which lately occupied them; but n a shameful condition, both as to repairs and clean-

but very strong town, upon the English channel, s and finely fortified road and harbour, the best and ingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reason of nder water. At Brest, there was a court of admiralty, affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval store-houses, &c. insomuch that it may be termed the

capital receptacle for the navy of France, for whic
bly well adapted.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful villag
great importance. He fortified both the town and ha
ception and protection of the navy. Its old and its
contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ships pass fro
other, both of them having an outlet into the spacio
Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a partic
for each ship of war; its guns, cordage, &c. being s
Here are spacious work-shops, for black-smiths, joi
lock-smiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone,
fathoms in length, with three-arched walks. Its g
supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular
contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores,
greatest order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to
styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Le
called the father of the French commerce and manufact
there was a great appearance that France would mak
figure as a trading, as she did then as a warlike peopl
is, the French do not naturally possess that undaun
which is necessary for commerce and colonisation, thou
theory, understand them better. It is to be conside
time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of he
certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil,
possessed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so
of Henry IV.; and in the age of his grandson Louis
Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. T
then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic
vocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the
the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decrease
their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of Eng
French protestants took refuge, and were happily succ
to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Nismes, are
for silk manufactures. France before the revolution
silk mills, 21,000 looms for stuffs, 12,000 for ribbons
for silk stockings, all of which employed two millions
also manufacture gloves and stockings from spider-silk
hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especia
Amiens, and Paris, are said to be now little inferior to t
and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Tur
sisted by the clandestine importation of English and
workmen from this country.

In manufactures, the French have always been distin
invention, and the English for their superior improve
is famous for cloth, linen, sail-cloth, and soap; Auvergn
lace, stuffs, and paper; Nismes for fine serges; Cambr
St. Quentin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glass.

The districts adjoining the British Channel contain m
English breed, which are said to degenerate by rem
native soil.

Besides the infinite advantage arising to her inland co
rivers, navigable canals, and a connection with two seas,
before the revolution might be said to extend itself al

nt whether France was a loser by its cession of Ca-
ouisiana by the peace of 1763. But the island of St.
she long possessed the most valuable part, and now
d to her by the late treaty with Spain, is a most im-
n, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies.
s she likewise held, till the present war, the impor-
of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartho-
nd Marigalante. Her possessions in North America
ict upon the Mississippi.
sessions in the East Indies were never very consider-
they are, they are now in the hands of the English.
ves the following account of the trade of France before
Her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of
ny, through Metz and Strasbourg—to the Nether-
le—to Spain (a most profitable one), through Ba-
nan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the
he Western Ocean, are frequented by all the trading
, to the great advantage of France, more especially
carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The
diterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles)
Africa has long been very considerable. The negro
supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory,
n thence."
e wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, silks, satins, linens, wool-
es, laces, gold and silver embroideries, toys, trinkets,
, prints, books, drugs, dyes, &c. The imports are
n-ware, cotton, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses,
dia goods, &c. Before the revolution it employed one
hipping, with near 50,000 seamen; the imports were
333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it had a *balance*
than two millions in its favour; but its trade and ma-
ince greatly declined.

DING COMPANIES.] It has no trading companies, (hav-
monopolies) but a bank or *caisse d'escompte*, and a bank
s. A plan has lately been proposed for establishing a
that of England; but it will probably meet the fate of
of the same nature.

ON AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution
d a *new constitution*, upon the principle that all men
ual in their rights. After the death of the king, in the
ther constitution was framed, and adopted, which was
by another, usually called *the constitution of the third year*.
ution the government was vested in a directory of five
legislative body composed of a council of ancients, of
d fifty members, and a council of five hundred.
nber, 1799, this constitution was likewise overthrown,
n of government erected, consisting of what is called a
nate of eighty members; a tribunate of one hundred; a
of three hundred; and three consuls, nominated for ten
initely re-eligible. The first consul possesses such attri-
cises such functions, as give him the most ample power;
s now held by general Buonaparte, the author of this re-
onstitution. How long this form of government may re-
by a new revolution, among this mutable and violent
ust discover.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of
fertility of the soil of France; her numerous manuf
tensive commerce; her great cities, her numerous
rivers, and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wit
the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth,
Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitan
lines and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude that h
most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, how
be the state of that nation at present; and we do not
former period they were more rich or more happy.

The most obvious causes of this national poverty to
the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, wh
schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandisement of
the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which the
ried on against one half of Europe, and in which the
unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the
were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary d
subject, under various pretences, in the name of loa
When these failed, other methods, more despotic an
such as raising and reducing the value of money as it
purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous
adopted which gave the finishing blow to public credi
foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fr
man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desi
render miserable the nations around them, that man n
humanity whose breast is not raised with indignatio
mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries
that have happened, and the numerous places that have
to their ambition. It appears too plain, that, while they
foreign conquest, their country exhibits a picture of mi
Their towns, very few excepted, make a most dis
appearance. The shops are mean beyond description
appearance of their towns, and many of their cities,
the observation of any one who has been in that king
in another place mentioned the natural advantages of
hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plai
lent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this pe
the peasant and his family barely existed upon the gle
a spectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to see h
ground with a lean cow, ass, and a goat, yoked toget
English traveller that pity to which human nature
French peasant is now become a citizen; but time mu
his situation be essentially and permanently amended.

REVENUES.] Some authors make the amount of
for the year 1792 only 300,000,000 livres, equal to 1
ing, and, with the incidental taxes, in all 15,500,00
nine millions less than before the revolution, when
clergy were exempted.

All excises and excisemen, tythes, and game laws,
and the roads maintained at public expense.

The REVENUE in the year 1788, before the revolu
lions and a half sterling; and its ordinary expenditure
venue five millions and a half.

The extraordinary expenses of the war carried on by

efrayed by the seizure of church lands, confiscations,
ontributions imposed on the conquered countries,
ercnt from permanent revenue.
Gilbert, a member of the council of five hundred,
or the 6th year at 479,593,579 livres, or 19,980,000l.

October, 1799, the executive directory sent a message
e hundred, stating the amount of the receipts of the
epublic at 476,000,000 livres, or somewhat above
ng. The expenses of the year they stated, at the same
00 livres; or 30,250,000l. sterling.
T, 1784, was £. 141,666,000.
MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe
r, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and
er understood than in France. Besides other methods
there was a royal military academy established pur-
g up 500 young gentlemen at a time, in the several
eat art.
ace establishment of the *army*, for the year 1792, was,

| | |
|---|---|
| Infantry, ..... | 111,000 |
| Cavalry, ..... | 30,000 |
| Artillery, ..... | 11,000 |
| Total, .. | 152,000 |

*troops of the line*, and, along with the volunteer na-
ed an army on the frontiers of 224,000 men.
ey, or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia
efence of the kingdom, and amount to between three

are an auxiliary body of troops for the protection of

tablishment before the war; but since the attack made
y the allied powers, the number of troops they have
eld almost exceeds belief. In the year 1794, they had
men in arms; which force was distributed as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| of the north, ..... | 220,000 |
| l armies of the Rhine and Moselle, | 280,000 |
| of the Alps, ..... | 60,000 |
| of the eastern Pyrenees, ..... | 80,000 |
| of the south, ..... | 60,000 |
| of the west, ..... | 80,000 |
| Total, .. | 780,000 |

eport of the minister, towards the close of the year 1791,
n good condition to be eighty-six of the line, and
ates, besides fire-ships, corvettes, galleys, and cutters.
victories of the English by sea, in the course of the pre-
e extremely reduced, and, indeed, nearly annihilated,
e.

S, ARMS, NOBILITY, ORDERS. } The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, desirous of establishing the

French constitution on the principles it has declared al
ly, those institutions which are injurious to liberty an
There is no longer any *nobility*, nor *peerage*, nor *her*
nor *difference of orders*, nor *feudal government*, nor *pat*
nor any of the *titles*, *denominations*, and *prerogatives*
from them; nor any of the orders of *chivalry*, *corporat*
for which proofs of nobility were required; nor any
but that of public functionaries in the exercise of the
Royalty, which was one branch of the ancient co
abolished, and the unfortunate monarch decapitated.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better a
that of France, and it is particularly interesting to a
This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tra
Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisal
Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from It
contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon b
object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave r
nexed to their empire, by the invincible arms of Julius
ty-eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the
Romans till the downfal of that empire in the fifth ce
came a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the
duced but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The l
who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, w
several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly t
on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the
prudence better than their neighbours. These Salii
the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and
modern Franks applied to the succession of the thr
females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is w
name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing th
ducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parce
among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings
to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise
ty in their respective governments, until they at lengt
dependency, only acknowledging the king as their hea
to those numerous principalities that were formerly i
the several parliaments; for every province became,
government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no
or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the gre
sisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately af
of the Roman empire, the first government in France s
a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kin
cumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according
the best French historians,) was Clovis, who began his
and was baptised, and introduced Christianity, in the ye
of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the
death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial con
mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervo
present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenge
But though he publicly professed to acknowledge the tr
its divine precepts were but little respected. From this
history exhibits a series of great events; and we find th
gaged in domestic broils, or foreign wars. The first ra

…e, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then …and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Van…terity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, …n mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became …y, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of …e pope; he divided his empire, by will, among his …l fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, …erce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and …dinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France; and, about …ed the French to yield Normandy and Bretagne to …who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded …Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman …hich afterwards gave a king to England, in the person …f Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon …66. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to …ged that nation in almost perpetual wars with Eng…was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers, …t received from Scotland.

…ching, which broke out at this time, was of infinite …h crown, in two respects: in the first place it carried …of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were …of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the …the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

…the dark ages of the crusades, their expedition to the …rs with England, which have already been mentioned, …that period when the French began to extend their …ope, in the reign of Francis I. contemporary with …gland. This prince, though he was brave to excess …, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were …was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities …He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but …own—Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king …osen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited …gland to an interview, the two kings met in an open …where they and their attendants displayed their mag…ch emulation and profuse expense as gave it the …*f the Cloth of Gold.* Feats of chivalry, parties of gal…ith such exercises and pastimes as were in that age …elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both …ieen days that they continued together*. Francis …ful expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, …ry fond, to abuse his power: by which he disobliged …ourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a

*English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the …h great minuteness. One circumstance mentioned by the mare…who was present, and which appears singular in the present age, …"After the tournament," says he, "the French and English …ppearance, and wrestled in presence of the kings and the ladies; …y stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime: but as the …neglected to bring any wrestlers out of Bretagne, the English …fter this the kings of France and England retired to a tent, …ether, and the king of England, seizing the king of France by …y *brother, I must wrestle with you,*" and endeavoured once or …eels; but the king of France, who was a dexterous wrestler, …d threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king …o renew the combat, but was prevented."—*Memoires de Fleur…*…30, p. 329.

confederacy against him with the emperor and Hen
In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was t
battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to ag
terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain h
performance of those conditions was afterwards t
wars between him and the emperor; and he died in

France, at the time of his death, notwithstandin
agreeable events during the late reign, was in a fl
Francis I. was succeeded by his son Henry II. who,
an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued t
peror of Germany to great advantage for his own
so well served by the duke of Guise, that, though he
Quentin against the Spaniards and the English, he
the latter, who never since had any footing in Fran
son the dauphin to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes
dom to his crown; but in this scheme, he, or rath
unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotl
in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by
gomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II. a w
prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose pow
grossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle t
tiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of pow
Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great
strong opposition against the government. Anton
was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the qu
mous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take p
the confederacy, which had adopted the cause of
broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Franc
year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé,
of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a co
court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balanc
Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell int
the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her
tinued series of dissimulation, treachery, and mur
Guise, who was the scourge of the protestants, was
Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer w
to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, adm
was then at the head of the protestant party. Three c
At length the court pretended to grant the Hugue
tageous peace, and a match was concluded betwee
king of Navarre, a protestant, and the French king's
of the protestants were invited to celebrate the nup
the infernal view of butchering them all, if possible,
project proved but too successful, though it was not c
on St. Bartholomew's day, 1752. The king himself
sacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The sign
slaughter of so many thousands was to be made b
bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work
and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal n
lomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general
few moments would be devoted to the fate of Coligni.
ed to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the ass
rounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered
the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared

ich had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resis-
ounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to
ith an undismayed countenance he had scarce uttered
ng man, respect these gray hairs, nor stain them with
me plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his
tes, threw the body into the court. The young duke
plated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême,
Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Cou-
we have begun well; let us finish in the same man-
at about 30,000 protestants were murdered at Paris,
f France: and this brought on a fourth civil war.
ace was concluded in 1573 with the protestants, yet
roke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX.

ber, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been
and; and, hearing of his brother's death, he with some
to France, where he took quiet possession of that
ne of Henry III.

time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the
had lost. The heads of the protestants could raise
ts. The governors of provinces behaved in them as
independent of the crown; and the parties were so
that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A
med for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head
duke of Guise. The protestants, under the prince of
e of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German
sistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in
Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the
declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. The civil
within the year, by another pretended peace. The
accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a
debauchery and religious extravagances. He was
by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural
began to suspect that the proscriptions of the pro-
etting aside from the succession the king of Navarre,
religion, which was aimed at by the holy league,
o place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman-
throne, to which that duke had some distant preten-
himself on the throne, a seventh civil war broke out
her in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvan-
tants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The
ow so dangerous, that, after inviting him in a friendly
both he and his brother the cardinal were, by his
and in a manner under his eyes, basely assassinated
guers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his
enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw him-
of the protestants; but while he was besieging Paris,
had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated
a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III.
Valois.

history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on
ligion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of

n, lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of
e. Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed by Ferdi-
about the year 1512.

the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Sa
counter before he mounted the throne. The league
the duke of Maine, brother to the late duke of Gui
from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, un
Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their p
supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the gl
formed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ser
him more illustriously unfortunate: for he and hi
sometimes without common necessaries. He was, h
beloved; and no objection lay against him, but th
The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselv
nation in general were jealous of the Spaniards. H
encing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secre
of declaring himself a Roman-catholic. This was d
prudence, if not of necessity, as the king of Spai
daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of Fran
married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publickly to mass, as a mark
This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour
great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, al
to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spai
which he did for several years with various fortune.
lished the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to
protestants, the free exercise of their religion; and ne
of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next
of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubl
and applied himself with wonderful attention and suc
his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully) to
piness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, p
silk, the benefit of which France experiences at this
established the tranquillity and in a great measure sec
of his people, he formed connections with the neighb
reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for w
said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a
others say (for his intention does not clearly appear)
have formed Christendom into a great republic, of wh
be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe;
bute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of
for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried
into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in
it is certain, that, while he was making preparations
of his queen Mary of Medicis, and was ready to en
expedition, he was assassinated in his coach, in the
one Ravaillac, another young enthusiast like Clemen

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. was but nine years
of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded h
favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardi
put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to
berties of France, and to the religious establishment
there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Char
who had married the French king's sister, made som
his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end t
account of religion in France. Historians say, that h
a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 l
carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hun

rches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses,
otherwise destroyed during their continuance.
y a masterly train of politics, though himself bigoted to
rted the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus,
use of Austria. After quelling all the rebellions and con-
ch had been formed against him in France, he died some
e Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his son, afterwards the
XIV. to inherit his kingdom.
t prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under
ation of his mother, Anne of Austria, by the factions of the
divisions between the court and parliament, for the most
, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of
like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a
sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated
from a protestant had turned papist. The nation of
volved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-
made choice of cardinal Mazarin for her first minister,
ss to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spa-
divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually
ives, that, when Lewis assumed the reins of government in
, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had
the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the
ath, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into
Colbert, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce,
ms of France, in all of which he was extremely success-

history of this reign would be to write that of all Europe.
ambition were the only enemies of Lewis; through the
s blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted
f his subjects only that they might the better answer the
greatness: by the latter he embroiled himself with all his
d wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devasta-
impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, in
, and his persecutions of the protestants, he obliged them
in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany,
tablished the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of
try. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to
vine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He
ke treaties for his own conveniency, and at last raised
a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe;
which was king William III. of England. He was so
at he made head for some years against this alliance; but
ed the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms
e of Marlborough, and the Austrians under the prince
red the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning
splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1712, was
series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortifi-
ng those places taken from him, which, in the former
n, were acquired at the expense of many thousand lives.
reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of
people, and dying at their head, he was saved, by the
inistry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies,
the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deli-
o years; and, in his last hours, displayed a greatness of
f his elevated situation: "Why do you weep?" said he

to his domestics, " Did you think me immortal ?" He
September 1715, and was succeeded by his great-gra
The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural childr
volved France in a civil war, had not the regency be
the Duke of Orléans, a man of sense and spirit, and t
prince of the blood, who having embroiled himself wi
was declared of age in 1722, and the regent on the
1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the first acts of the government of Lewis X
nating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to t
Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situ
Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland in
once embroiled him with the house of Austria. Th
French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanisl
of Poland. In this he failed through the interpositi
and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of k
nues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life,
between France and Spain forced the former to beco
war against Great Britain, which was terminated by
la-Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy w
mind, naturally unsettled, was inflamed by the dispute
and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the
tion of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the de
as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was st
though slightly, with a penknife, between the fourth
the presence of his son, and in the midst of his gua
assasin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, but
trayed by his distracted countenance. He declared
tention to kill the king: but that he only meant to
God might touch his heart, and incline him to rest
of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament,
archbishop of Paris, whom he regarded as the sou
commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declara
amidst the most exquisite tortures; and after human
exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his jud
his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the inhu
increased by the evident madness that stimulated hi
attempt, and which might fill the hearts of savages w
conducted to the common place of execution, amidst
the populace; stripped naked, and fastened to the sca
One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming s
legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boilin
rosin, and sulphur were poured into the wounds; an
horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits having rendered themselves universall
share in the conspiracy against the late king of Port
under the lash of the civil power for certain frau
transactions. They refused to discharge the debts o
who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and wh
act for the benefit of the whole society. As a mon
necessarily do so. The parliament eagerly seized
humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits were
before those high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to
creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision

us pretences. New suits were commenced against account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. ese proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain ere compelled to produce their *Institute*, or the rules erto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, contain maxims subversive of all civil government, damental principles of morals, completed their ruin. ere seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, d them the kingdom by a solemn edict, and utterly r of Jesus in France.

victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parlia- set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and d to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with inst them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be st the governors of several provinces, acting in the had enforced the registration of those edicts. The these assemblies had awakened new ideas in the bo- ch; they were taught by the late remonstrances to erent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, ccumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of

with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of 763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to already mentioned in the history of England, and t be recapitulated here.

ll island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with e oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the it by right of conquest. But, unable to support those ey transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis n full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia. ans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his werful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes enty battalions of French were landed in Corsica; and e free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their to the supreme government of the island, determined berties to the utmost.

body war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the in- e nature of the country, was carried on in all the fast- mous parts of the island; and it was not till after the ly experienced, in two successive campaigns, the enthu- hich animates the champions of freedom, that they over- ir superior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had on to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which he veral thousands of his bravest troops, and only extend- over a rugged and unproductive island.

rtunate king, Lewis XVI. succeeded his grandfather e 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made n, highly favourable to the general interests of the nation, suppression of the Mousquetaires, and some other corps, plied more to the parade of guarding the royal person military service, were supported at a great expense, quate return of benefit to the state. One re- mstance which attended this reign was the placing of

M. Necker, a protestant, and a native of Switzerland
the French finances, in 1776. Possessed of distinguish
ledged abilities, his appointment would have excited n
not been contrary to the constant policy of France, w
fully excluded the aliens of her country and faith fro
the revenue. Under the direction of Necker, a gen
place in France through every department in the
hostilities commenced in 1777, between France and G
consequence of the assistance afforded by the former
British colonies in America, the people of France wer
with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the pub
augmented by the economy, improvements, and reform
introduced into the management of the finances. In
this national economy, the navy of France was also ra
height as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

Actuated by a laudable zeal to extend the limits of s
ted out several vessels for astronomical discoveries.
Borda was instructed to ascertain the exact positi
islands and Cape de Verd, and the different degrees of
rica, from Cape Spartel to the island of Goree. The
nier, who had traversed the Indian seas to improve the
rect the errors of former navigators, was likewise liber

The visit of the emperor of Germany to the court of F
occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. He
under the humble title of count Falkenstein; he was r
with that respect which was due to the imperial dignit
that he was impatient to testify to the brother of hi
During six weeks that the emperor remained at Paris,
incessantly devoted to examine the various establishmen
and in viewing the manufactures. With the same spir
made a tour through the different provinces of the kin
journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be adv
own dominions.

Amidst the fury of war, Lewis displayed a regard fa
vious to the commencement of hostilities, the Englis
vessels into the South seas, commanded by captains C
to explore the coasts and islands of Japan and Californ
those vessels was hourly expected in Europe; and Le
derate humanity which reflects the highest honour on
a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded
from all hostilities against these ships, and to treat the
sels. The letters mentioned also, in terms of the great
tain Cook, who had long distinguished himself in succ
discovery. But death allowed not that celebrated n
this grateful testimony to his merit; for, in one of th
ed islands, he had already fallen a victim to the b
savage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence
tions of Mr. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in
the queen were abolished; and sundry other importa
opted for the ease of the subject, and the general ben
dom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he cl
of the disbursements (at least one million sterling) of th
an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount
the measures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to pr

in, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became
l the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firm-
support an upright and able minister. He was there-
and is said to have been particularly opposed by the

of America had been the grand object of France; and
acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by
he preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on
uary, 1783; but the immense expences incurred were
he much more than the revenues of the kingdom could
upport; and the miserable exigencies to which govern-
ed contributed no doubt to bring about the late revo-

s wars of France with England, particularly in the last
turies, no object appeared of more consequence to her
than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view
want, the ablest engineers in that kingdom have pro-
most astonishing and stupendous works, to render the
burg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy.
rs after the last peace, they prosecuted this work at an
of upwards of 200,000l.
786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded
courts of London and Versailles, as we have already
account of England.
of the French government made its subjects acquainted
assisting the insurgents in America and Holland, and ex-
mongst the people, which could not well admit of the con-
trary power at home. The dismission of monsieur Necker
tion of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being
r with his integrity nor abilities, the finances of the na-
e point of being entirely ruined. When the edict for
loan at the conclusion of 1785, which amounted to the
illions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was
parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the
of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable
g, however, signified to the select deputations that were
o convey to him their remonstrances, that he expected
ithout farther delay. The ceremony of registering took
xt day, but was accompanied with a resolution, im-
ublic economy was the only genuine source of abundant
nly means of providing for the necessity of the state,
hat credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of

ding was no sooner known, than the king required the
he grand deputation of parliament; he erased from their
olution that had been adopted; and declared himself
he conduct of monsieur de Calonne, his comptroller-

tified by the support of his sovereign, monsieur de Ca-
t fail of feeling himself deeply mortified by the opposition
t. An anxious inquiry into the state of the public fi-
vinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the
e present situation to impose new taxes was impossible,
method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourse
nical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and

he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossi
finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of what
in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this
nister was sensible that something more was necessary t
rity; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fi
introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would
passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minist
plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that
was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dign
in its character, and that should consist, in a greater deg
from the various orders of the state, and the different
kingdom. But the true and legitimate assembly of
states-general, had not met since the year 1614. Anoth
occasionally been substituted in the room of the state
was distinguished by the title of the *notables*, or men o
sisted of a number of persons from all parts of the k
selected from the higher orders of the state, and nomin
himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry
again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once mor
the authority of the present monarch; and the 29th of
was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monsieur de Calo
assembly of the notables, and opened his long expected
gan by stating, that the public expenditure had for cer
ceeded the revenues; that a very considerable deficienc
existed; and that, at his own accession to office, it wa
three hundred and thirty thousand pounds.

To remedy this evil the comptroller-general recommen
impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from wh
order of men was to be exempted; and an inquiry into
of the clergy, which hitherto had been exempted from be
tion of the public burthens. The various branches of i
were also to undergo a strict examination; and a consid
was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the cr

Before monsieur Necker retired from the management
he had published his "Compte rendu au Roi," in which
presented as possessing a clear surplus of four hundred
thousand pounds sterling. This performance had been re
and had been considered as an æra in the history of Fra
of this statement was ably vindicated by monsieur de L
shop of Toulouse, and by the count de Mirabeau, a still
bly enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, migh
fully vindicated his system and reputation against the
Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau, but the genius of t
general sunk under the influence of the three great bo
tion. The grand and essential object of reform was
public burthens, and, by rendering the taxes general, t
load of the lower and most useful classes of the people.
bility and the clergy had ever been free from all public a
crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patent
shameful custom exempted, both themselves and their
contributing proportionably to the expenses of the state:
likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share
so that the whole weight of the taxes fell on those that w

Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy, were
the minister; and the event was such as might be expect-
ignes of these three bodies raised against him so loud
at, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, monsieur de
uly resigned his place on the 12th of April, but soon after
gland from the storm of persecution.

s proceeded in their enquiries; and it was now suggested
dy of the states should be called, as the notables were not
mpose a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables
ied on in secret, this proposal was instantly circulated
pital, and supposed to be a new discovery. The notables
r dissolved, without having accomplished any thing except
on of monsieur Necker.

act, however, was established, and a bed of justice was held
n the 5th of August, 1787, at which the parliament of
iged to attend, and the edict was registered, notwithstand-
est to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated,
subdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of
entered a formal protest against the concession that had
from them.

every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild
Lewis, he could not consent to surrender, without a struggle,
y which had been so long exercised by his predecessors.
mencement of the present discontents, the capital had
y filled with considerable bodies of troops; and about a
e parliament had entered the protest, an officer of the
ds, with a party of soldiers, went at break of day to the
ch individual member, to signify to him the king's com-
e should immediately get into his carriage and proceed to
y of Champagne, about seventy miles from Paris, without
peaking to any person out of his own house before his de-
ese orders were served at the same instant; and before the
aris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament
on the road to the scene of their banishment.

was the resentment of the whole nation on account of the
of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled.
ntely done when they were desired to register a loan; at
hesitated, notwithstanding all the manœuvres of the mini-
st the king came to the house, and held what is called a
n. The edicts were now registered; but the duke of Orléans
the presence of the king, against the legality of the session it-
no purpose. The duke of Orléans, with four others, was
he king called for the journals of the house, destroyed the
forbade it to be inserted again. Great clamours were raised
shment of the duke of Orléans and the other members of par-
monstrances were presented by the parliaments of Paris, Bour-
llennes; but the exiles were not recalled till the spring of 1788.
ative remained now to Lewis, but to plunge his country into
nity of civil war, or to comply with the wishes of his people,
bish the states-general. In the first case he must have ex-
ncounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhor-
examples of their magistrates: the peers of the realm had
e strongest disapprobation of his measures, nor could he
d any longer on the princes of the blood; but what afforded

most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displ
military, who, during the disturbances in the provinces,
been brought to draw their swords against their countryn
of those officers who had recently served in America pub
ed their abhorrence of despotism.

It was under these impressions, in the beginning of A
was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-gen
of May in the ensuing year, viz. 1789; at the same time
taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public.
ments took place in the administration; and monsieur
the confidence of the people had long followed, was ag
into the management of the finances; the torture, whi
edict had been restricted in part, was entirely abolished
accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and per
himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that, in
of death should not be passed on any person, unless the
should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of th

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states-
tional assembly, whose re-establishment, in the month of
sented a new æra in the government of France. But the
meeting was far from auspicious to the court, but great
terests of the nation. The minds of the French had lon
by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expe
different orders of the state was extinguished by the jarr
of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by t
the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supp
repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted. A
vaded the kingdom increased the general gloom and disco
people, pressed by hunger and inflamed by resentment
revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obs
santly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the i
queen in the cabinet was again established, and was a
immediate removal of monsieur Necker. This step, w
total change of resolutions, and which, from the popula
nister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in
men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The
were driven into the Salle des Etats, where they held
by detachments of the guards, who surrounded them, a
only the orders of the court to proceed to greater extr
the obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been only sustain
attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted, that
it still was, and unwilling to expose to the licence of a
diery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital w
without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay w
gave the inhabitants time to recover from their first emot
and apprehension. They saw the timidity and imbecil
vernment, which, having sounded the charge, dared not
attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and pa
extreme rapidly to another, they almost unanimously
against their rulers. Joined by the French guards, who,
sidence in the capital, had been peculiarly exposed to
who at this decisive moment abandoned their sovereign,
broke through every obstacle by which they had hitherto b
The supplies of arms and ammunition which had bee

n were turned against the crown; and the Hôtel des
eat repository of military stores, after a faint resistance,

c Lambesc, who alone, of all the officers commanding
in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into exe-
for disarming the capital, was repulsed in a premature
attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near
the garden of the Tuileries. Already the Prevôt des
sieur de Flesselles, convicted of entertaining a corres-
the court, and detected in sending private intelligence
Launay, governor of the Bastile, had been seized by the
en the first victim to general indignation. His head,
ce, exhibited an alarming spectacle of the danger to
e to the sovereign must expose in a time of anarchy
n.

lone remained; and, while it continued in the power of
could not be regarded as secure from the severest chas-
as instantly invested on the 14th of July, 1789, by a
e, composed of citizens and soldiers who had joined the
. De Launay, who commanded in the castle, by an act
mmable under any circumstances, and which rendered
gretted, rather accelerated than delayed the capture of
fortress. He displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a
sing the confidence which these signals inspired, he dis-
y fire from the cannon and musquetry of the place upon
and made considerable carnage. Far from intimidating,
ated, by so treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an
ace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raised
d were crowned with success. The Bastile, that awful
ation, whose name alone diffused terror, and which for
been sacred to silence and despair, was entered by the
ants. De Launay, seized and dragged to the Place de
antly dispatched, and his head carried in triumph through
aris.

n were found the most horrible engines for putting to the
n those unhappy persons whom the cruelty or jealousy
d determined to destroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons
found with the skeleton of a man in it, who had proba-
a great part of his days in that horrid mansion. Among
rieved by its destruction, were major White a Scotsman,
an Irish nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The for-
to have his intellectual faculties almost totally impaired
ishment and miseries he had endured; and, by being
to converse with any human creature, had forgotten the
Earl Massarene, at his arrival on the British shore,
d out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and, kissing the
exclaimed, "God bless this land of liberty!" The count
a very advanced period of life, was also liberated, and ex-
public curiosity in the Palais Royal. His squalid ap-
ame beard which descended to his waist, and, above all,
resulting probably from the effect of an imprisonment of
en, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the
ions of every beholder. It is indeed impossible not to
the exultation which a capital and a country, so long op-

pressed, must have experienced at the extinction of th
justly dreaded prison of state.

With the Bastile expired the despotism of the Frenc
long prescription, submission, and military strength,
equally sacred and unassailable; which neither the
close of Lewis XIV.'s reign, the profligacy and enorm
ceeding regency, nor the state of degradation into whi
sunk under Lewis XV. had ever shaken: that power, w
derive its support almost as much from the loyalty a
from the dread and terrors of the subject, fell prostrat
never betrayed any symptom of returning life.

The next morning after the capture of the Bastile,
peared in the national assembly, but without the pom
despotism. His address was affectionate and conse
mented the disturbances at Paris; disavowed all cons
meditated attack on the persons of the deputies; and
had issued orders for the immediate removal of the tr
cinity of the metropolis. The tear of sympathy started
eye. An expressive silence first pervaded the assembly,
was succeeded by a burst of applause and acclamation
the king having intimated to the national assembly his
ing Paris the following day, he accordingly on the mor
left Versailles in a plain dress, and with no other es
carriages with eight horses each; in the first of which
a part of the national assembly in their robes accompan
and the militia of Versailles composed his only guard t
arrived at the Seve, where they were relieved by the P
the marquis de la Fayette at their head: and from this
the monarch amounted to about 20,000 men. The
markably slow; and no shout was to be heard but *Viv*
Bailly, on presenting the keys of the city, addressed his
speech, the exordium of which was:—"These, sir, ar
were presented to Henry IV. He came to re-conquer
our happiness to have re-conquered our king." On re
plimentary addresses of the mayor, &c. the king exclai
of pathetic emotion, which scarcely allowed him utter
ple may always rely upon my affection." He received
of the mayor the national cockade; and when he shew
window with this badge of patriotism, the joy of the
longer be restrained; the shout of *Vive le Roi!* which h
heard in the former part of the day, filled the whole a
resounded from one extremity of the city to the other.
the king to Versailles was a real triumph. The citizen
icated with joy, surrounded his carriage; his countenan
morning bore the aspect of melancholy, was now cheer
and he appeared sincerely to partake in the general sat

The events which followed are, by the candid of all
to be enveloped in an almost impenetrable veil of obsc
dent which occurred at Versailles contributed to excite
commotion. On the 1st of October an entertainment
gardes-du-corps, or king's body guards, to the officers
Flanders, who had just joined them in the service of gu
arch. Several of the officers of the national guard, wi
military, were invited. At the second course, four to

en, the dauphin, and the royal family." "The na-
but, according to a number of witnesses, expressly
des-du-corps. After this, the queen, having been
ty of the scene, persuaded his majesty, who was just
ng, to accompany her, with the heir apparent, to the
ed with the dauphin in her arms, affectionate as she
ried the royal infant through the saloon, amidst the
murmurs of the spectators. Fired with enthusiasm,
he health of the king, the queen, and the dauphin,
rawn; and the royal guests bowed respectfully and

nt, which had hitherto been conducted with some
w became a scene of entire confusion. Nothing was
the passions of the military. The music played the
Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee!" the
distributed *white cockades*, the anti-patriot ensign;
e national guard, it is said, had the weakness to ac-

nsactions the city of Paris was afflicted with all the
t this juncture the news arrived of the fatal banquet
very circumstance greatly magnified. Early on the
norable 5th of October, a woman sallied out from
ustache, and entering the corps-de-garde, and seizing
e adjacent streets beating an alarm, and exciting
ours respecting the scarcity of bread. She was soon
merous mob, chiefly of women, to the amount of
d to Versailles, where the king, upon hearing their
an order for bringing corn from Senlis and Lagni,
very obstacle which impeded the supply of Paris.
orted to the women, and they retired with gratitude

mazons were no sooner dispersed, than it was succeed-
e national assembly continued sitting; but the session
d interrupted by the shouts and harangues of the Pa-
who filled the galleries; their applause was mingled
murs and complaints, the multitude crying out that
starving, and that the majority of them had eaten
ls of twenty-four hours. The president therefore
that provision should be sought for in every part of
hall of the assembly was the scene of a miserable,
ltuous banquet. Indeed, such was the dreadful fa-
e of one of the gardes-du-corps being killed in a tu-
diately roasted, and greedily devoured by the mob.
deluge of rain added to the horrors of the night. The
es who had travelled from Paris, were exposed, almost
inclemencies of the weather, in the open streets:
ll was trepidation: nothing was to be heard from
cations, and the voices of enraged multitudes de-
f the queen and the gardes-du-corps. Toward mid-
ll appeared tolerably still and peaceable, when the
nd the light of innumerable torches, announced the
arisian army.
to break at about half past five; and at this period
and other desperate persons, breathing vengeance and
, advanced to the castle, which, in an hour of fatal

security, was left unguarded in several places. A
found its way into every part. The queen had been
ter of an hour before by the clamours of the wo
upon the terrace; but her waiting-woman had satisf
" that they were only the women of Paris, who, sh
ing able to find a lodging, were walking about." B
proaching, and becoming apparently more serious, she
self in haste, and ran to the king's apartment by
In her way she heard the noise of a pistol and a mus
bled her terror. " My friends," said she to every
" save me and my children!" In the king's cham
dauphin, who had been brought there by one of he
king was gone. Awakened by the tumult, he had s
the multitude pressing towards the stair-case; and
queen, he hastened to her apartment, and entered in
moment she had quitted it by the other. He return
time: and having with the queen brought the prince
chamber, they prepared to face the multitude.

In the mean time the noise and tumult increased
the very door of the chamber. Nothing was to be h
dreadful exclamations, with violent and repeated blow
door, a panuel of which was broken, and instant dea
the royal company. Suddenly, however, the tumult
every thing was quiet, and a moment after a gentle
the door. The door was opened, and in an instan
were filled with the Parisian guard. The officer who
ordered them to ground their arms. " We come,"
the king;" and turning to such of the gardes-du-co
apartments, " We will save you also, gentlemen; le
ment be united."

The royal family now ventured to shew themselve
and received the most lively acclamations of respect
and the people. A single voice, or a few voices, c
king to Paris!" and this was instantly followed by an
tion enforcing the same demand. 'The king addresse
wish me to go to Paris;—I will go, on the condition
accompanied by my wife and children.'—He was
iterated acclamations of *Vive le roi!* It was two ho
fore the procession set out. During the progress all
among the soldiers and spectators: and such was the
the French nation still held the name and person of t
multitude were superstitiously persuaded that the roy
actually put an end to the famine. On his arrival,
gratulated by the municipality, and declared his appr
alty which the city of Paris manifested.

The spirit of the nation was so entirely averse fro
the high aristocratic party, that numbers of them, par
two brothers, and some of the first rank and fortune,
reign countries, where they applied themselves indefat
pose of exciting war against their country.

Great preparations were made for the celebration
deration, in which the representatives of the nation,
diery, and all who were in ostensible situations, should
the face of the whole nation, renew their oaths of fi
constitution; and this confederation was decreed to

90, in honour of the taking of the Bastile, and of the
t of Gallic liberty. The *Champ de Mars*, so famous for
endezvous of the troops which in the preceding year
overawe the capital, was chosen for this solemnity.
nal, which is about 400 toises, or 800 yards, in diame-
s the right and left by lofty trees, and commands at
nity a view of the Military Academy. In the middle
an altar was erected for the purpose of administering
nd round it an immense amphitheatre was thrown up,
cumference, and capable of containing 400,000 spec-
trance was through triumphal arches. The king's
d under an elegant pavilion in the middle, and on each
eats for the members of the national assembly.
14th of July at length arrived. The national guards
ts, distinguished by their respective standards, the bat-
y, and the different troops of cavalry, the marine of
foreigners who served under its banners, being arranged
r, the king and the national assembly took a solemn
n the constitution; the armed citizens repeated it
lauses of innumerable spectators. They swore to live
this oath was taken on the same day through the whole
gdom.

f the king and queen with their infant children, and
dame, on the 20th of June, 1791, menaced France with
l anarchy and the horrors of civil war. The route of
es, which had been expected to have been towards the
lands, the nearest frontier of the kingdom, was in fact
Metz, from the presence of so gallant and accomplished
de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince
in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leo-
the tranquillity of his Netherlands by permitting any
hem into France.—They reached St. Menehould, a small
miles from Paris. The king was there recognised by
ho said to him, "*Mon roi, je vous connois, mais je ne vous*
I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But
M. Drouet, less full of monarchic prejudice, adopted a
t. He avoided, with great dexterity and presence of
his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being
the resemblance which his majesty's countenance bore
an assignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road
went a cross-road to rejoin them: and arriving before
es, he alarmed the town and assembled the national
withstanding the detachment of hussars by which they
disarmed them, and the KING was then *made a prisoner*;
ck in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majesties,
n and madame royale, arrived at the Tuilleries.
stitution was presented to the king on the third of Sep-
who on the 13th signified his acceptance of it in writing,
ng day appeared in the assembly, introduced by a dep-
members, and solemnly consecrated the assent which he
ven and concluded with an oath, "To be faithful to
to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him for
e of the constitution, and the due execution of the
fter this, the second national council assembled, with
ior to the first.

The dubious and undecided conduct of the emper
and protection found in the German empire by the
excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a manif
all states and nations, made its appearance. The force
sued had the effect of intimidating the German prin
grants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion
But the protection of the emperor and the Prussian k
asylums more remote and less obtrusive. Irresolution
in the councils of the emperor, a monarch more em
virtues of peace than for the exertions of war. He
the national flag; he had declared that he regarded
French as absolutely free; while the league of Pilni
avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intend
many from such a revolution as France had experie
extinguish the dreaded source), and the protection af
grants, were infallible proofs that the emperor could
a friend. His sudden death, on the first of March, f
consternation among the aristocrats, and afforded joy
the supporters of the constitution. Another event n
happened in the death of the Swedish monarch, on th
month; and the superstitious vulgar imagined that th
culiar protection of heaven in the removal of the two e
in so short a time.

In the progress of the negotiations between the natio
the court of Vienna, the young Hungarian king, exci
ence of Prussia, began to exhibit more enmity, and t
guage. At length, on the 5th of April, M. de Noailles
to the French minister for foreign affairs, explained th
the Imperial court, that satisfaction should be given
princes proprietors of Alsace; that Avignon, which ha
ated by France, should be restored to the pope; and
government of France should be invested with sufficie
the other powers might have no apprehensions of h
France. These terms produced a declaration of war
king of Hungary and Bohemia, decreed by the assem
by the French king, on the 24th of April.

The first movement of the French was stained with
the unpropitious murder of Theobald Dillon, their l
prey to the suspicions and savage ferocity of some of
fled from the enemy, but attacked their general. The
had, in the beginning of July, published a declaratio
cause of the war, and retorting on the French nation
charges contained in its declaration of war against the
and Bohemia, now emperor of Germany. On the
same month, the Prussian monarch issued a concise
reasons which determined him to take up arms again
pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and that, as sover
state, he was bound to interfere to prevent the violatio
the German princes of Alsace and Lorraine, and the m
ritories of others: and he honestly concluded by avo
his intention to repress the too great liberty of Fran
afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries
time the duke of Brunswick, general of the combined
and Prussia, published, at Coblentz, a declaration to th
France, conceived in the most haughty and presumpt

tion of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed
f restoring the king to his power; and yet he after-
ign was not to interfere in the internal government.
o dwell on the other parts of this insolent memorial,
as already regarded as a conquered country, and di-
n to the magistrates, national guards, and inhabitants
threat that the city of Paris should be given up to
, in case the least outrage should be offered to the
yal family, is worthy of a Hun.
the night between the 9th and 10th of August we re-
At midnight the alarm-bell sounded in every quarter
ole was beat, and the citizens flew to arms. The pa-
ries was attacked by the multitude; and the king,
family, were forced to take refuge in the national
st the Swiss guards (who were obnoxious to the peo-
n ineffectually proscribed by repeated decrees of the
g not being allowed to have a foreign guard) repelled
these being re-inforced by the Marsellois, and fede-
bodies which the Jacobins seem to have brought to Pa-
Swiss, and by national guards, the gates of the palace
The artillery joined the assailants. The consequences
a slaughter of about four hundred on each side, the
exterminated, and the palace ransacked.
September seemed pregnant with the total ruin of
while the three following months reversed the scene,
ble of success on the part of France, perhaps unex-
history.—It is with infinite concern that we direct the
aders to the prison scene, which occurred on the 2d
ber. The horrid massacre of the defenceless prisoners,
rats, which took place at that period, is an eternal dis-
ian populace, who, in their fury, spared not even that
all civilised nations hold in the highest respect. The
in has doubtless been exaggerated, as usual; yet sup-
e most moderate account, only two thousand perished,
he deed remains the same. Some extenuation might
affair of the 10th of August, in which a people, who
es betrayed to slavery and all its evils, so recently ex-
aken off, assumed their revenge and their cause into
; but no defence can be offered for this unnecessary
combined armies besieged Paris, it is difficult to con-
ey could have found from two or three thousand aris-
y of these secured in chains.
vention had been called, to determine on the charges
he king. They met on the 24th of September; and, on
he meeting, the abolition of royalty in France was de-
ation: and the following day it was ordered that all
d be dated " the first year, &c. of the French repub-
y was this convention constituted, when a violent fac-
ded by Marat*, Robespierre, and others, who repeat-

he hands of female vengeance. Marie Anne Charlotte Cordey,
with the calamities which he had brought upon her country, took
n July 1793, on purpose to put a period to his existence. Meeting
oming from the bath, and entering into conversation with him
dentify his person), she plunged a dagger into his breast; upon

edly degraded its transactions by their fanaticism; an
by the Jacobins and Parisian populace, proved too po
vention to punish as it wished. Repeated instances
the convention was not free, but must vote as the m
ted; the moderation of the members being often obli
indecent applauses and hisses of the galleries.

So rapid was the progress of the French arms, and
distresses in the combined armies, arising from a scar
from a long rainy season, and from a considerable m
Prussians (by the French accounts, estimated at
Prussians retreated from the dominions of France; v
Austrians soon followed.

Even at the very time that Paris was in the greates
sion of Savoy was ordered. On the 21st of Septembe
quieu entered the Savoyard territories, seized on the
castles without resistance, and two days after took M
berry and all Savoy soon followed; but the conquest,
was productive of no military glory. The imprudei
convention, in permitting Savoy to incorporate itsel
excited wonder. After frequent declarations that
enter into no war with any view to conquest, their c
spect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them
proach that, under the pretence of liberty, they maint
tive maxims of their ancient government: and that
crease their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, re
Admiral Truguet, commanding a squadron in the M
tured Nice, Villa Franca, and the fortress of Monta
the king of Sardinia.

The conquest of Savoy was regarded as a trifle;
began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was
dity and importance of his progress, till diverted by t
mouriez. Spires yielded to the French arms on the 3
and Worms soon after followed; ample supplies of p
munition were found in these cities. Custine, pursuin
the left bank of the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and
fort. He was eager to proceed to Coblentz, that
counter-revolutionists; but the Prussians and Austri
cated a renewal of hostilities by garrisoning that tow
in the adjacent country.

The conquest of the Austrian Netherlands forms t
ject Dumouriez had promised to pass his Christmas
what was regarded as an idle vaunt proved very mod
was in his hands by the 14th of November. That ab
entered the Netherlands on the first or second of tha
army of forty thousand men, and with a most formi
tillery, in repeated engagements with the Austrian arm
the duke of Saxe-Teschen, governor of the Austrian
by general Beaulieu, which however exceeded not twe
cupied the first five days. At length, on the 6th of N
sive battle was fought at Jomappe, which decided th
therlands. The contest was very general: all the pow

which he fell, and soon expired. Glorying in having exterminate
livered herself up to the officers of justice, and with the utmost f
her fate, in having her head severed by the guillotine, in the 25

ere attacked at once; all the bodies of the French
nd almost every individual fought personally. The
t seven in the morning; Dumouriez ordered the vil-
be attacked, because he could not attempt the heights
had taken that village. At noon the French infantry
s, and rapidly advanced to decide the affair by the
n obstinate defence, the Austrians at two o'clock re-
t disorder.
diately advanced and took possession of the neigh-
Mons, where the French were received as brethren.
gat Brussels, the court was struck with an indescriba-
tantly fled to Ruremond, whence it was again to be
s of Miranda. Tournay surrendered to a detachment
vember. Dumouriez having refreshed his troops at
Brussels, where, after an indecisive engagement be-
Austrian rear, he was received with acclamations on
month.—Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, Malines or
, Ostend, Namur, in short all the Austrian Nether-
mbourg, successively followed the example of the ca-
nquests of Louis XIV. were not more rapid.
vests, who were banished, came to England, and were
t benevolence: this was followed by the decree of the
n against the emigrants, by which they are declared
r effects confiscated, and themselves adjudged to im-
they appear in France.
of the 19th of November attracted the attention of
urope. It is in the following terms: "The national
e, in the name of the French nation, that they will
nd assistance to all those people who wish to procure
charge the executive power to send orders to the ge-
stance to such people, and to defend citizens who have
ow suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree,
milar tendency, seemed to institute a political crusade
ers of Europe.
Antwerp yielded to the French arms, than, in order to
lgians, the opening of the navigation of the Scheldt,
reaty of Munster, 1648, was projected and ordered;
his treaty, so far as respects the shutting up of the navi-
er, had been confirmed to the Dutch in succeeding
ed both by the courts of Versailles and London. The
this measure as injurious to their trade, for Antwerp
gerous rival to Amsterdam. The infraction of this
he reasons which induced the parliament of Great Bri-
unwarrantable pretensions of the French.
e trial of the king commenced on the 11th of Decem-
is too well known. The firmness of this unfortunate
his trial, and at the place of execution, on the 21st of
created the commiseration of every indifferent specta-
indeed must be the person who does not partake of the
was felt through all Europe upon this transaction.
tedious and disagreeable undertaking to trace minutely
progress of the dispute between France and England.
any degree of credit to the reports that Great Britain
really acceded to the concert of princes, and the treaty
natural to believe that the British ministry had long

viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French
a turbulent democracy. We must, however, do
the justice to confess, that the unanimous voice of t
morous from the first for peace and alliance with
of events changed this inclination. A bill for fo
aliens out of the kingdom was introduced into parli
of Great Britain were shut against the exportation
while it was permitted to her enemies. In the end,
the republic, M. Chauvelin, was ordered, under the au
bill, at a short notice, out of the kingdom: imme
dismission, the convention declared that the French
with the king of England, and the stadtholder of the

In consequence of these measures, general Dumour
a large body of troops to invade Holland, exhorting
violent manifesto, to reject the tyrannic aristocracy
and his party, and to become a free republic. Th
parations for defending themselves; and the Englis
their efforts, by an immediate embarkation of troop
of which the duke of York was appointed.

The subjugation of Holland was the first project
riez'; and when the ease with which he had effected
Netherlands, and the courage and ability displaye
army in the famous battle of Jemappe, were consid
reason to apprehend that he would soon make an i
provinces; and the easy surrender of Breda and Gert
raged him to boast that he would terminate the cont
proach to Amsterdam. Certain events, however, c
tually prevented the performance of this promise.

General Miranda, who had besieged the city of M
moned the governor to surrender, was attacked by
Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. T
this, divided themselves into three columns, two of
wards Maestricht, and the siege of that place was
The third pursued the advanced guard of the republ
of several commanding officers was supposed to hav
the success of the Prussians in these rencounters.

On the 14th of March, the Imperialists advance
wards Tirlemont, by St. Tron, and were attacked by
successively on the 15th and following days. The
attended with success. The Austrian advanced po
retire to St. Tron, through Tirlemont, which they
On the 18th, a general engagement took place a
French army being covered on the left by Dormae
by Landen. The action continued with great obsti
from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon
were obliged to fall back, and the Austrian cavalry c
entirely to flight. The loss of each army was great
played considerable courage and address, but were
superior numbers, and perhaps by the more regular
enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery, and g
timated his suspicions, in a confidential letter to Pe
of March. Four commissioners were immediately se
powers to suspend and arrest all generals and offi
they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the

n the 1st of April, proceeded to St. Amand, the head-
ouriez, and, being admitted to his presence, explained
of their mission. After a conference of some hours,
inding that he could persuade them to favour his in-
signal for a body of soldiers who were in waiting, and
ter of war, Bournonville, who was sent to supersede
missioners, Camus, Blancal, La Marque, and Quinette,
conveyed to general Clairfait's head-quarters at Tour-
or the safety of the royal family.
withstanding his splendid talents, found himself grossly
pect to the disposition of his army; they had resented
prudently offered to their general; but when he came
n his plan, and propose the restoration of royalty in the
nce, they all forsook him; and he was obliged to fly
attendants, making his escape through a dreadful dis-
ry, which the whole column poured upon him and his

of June, and the beginning of July, were chiefly di-
e north, by some petty skirmishes between the two
n the latter part of July, the Austrians obtained some
e importance. The garrison of Condé, after sustain-
three months, surrendered on the 10th, by capitula-
e of Cobourg; and Valenciennes, on the 20th of the
the duke of York, not without some suspicions of
h cases.
these successes, a large detachment from the combined
command of the duke of York, proceeded, without loss
k the port and town of Dunkirk. On the 22d of August,
k marched from Furnes to attack the French camp at
was abandoned at his approach, and he was almost im-
l to take the ground which it was his intention to oc-
siege. On the 24th, he attacked the outposts of the
ith some loss, were driven into the town. In this action,
rian general Dalton, and some other officers of note,
e succeeding day, the siege might be said regularly to
considerable naval armament from Great Britain was to
l in the siege; but, by some neglect, admiral Macbride
sail so early as was expected. In the mean time, the
s extremely harassed by the gun-boats of the French; a
was effected by the garrison on the 6th of September;
collecting in superior force, the duke of York, on the
l severe actions, in which the allied forces suffered very
as compelled to raise the siege, and leave behind him
rain of artillery. General Houchard was afterwards
e convention, and beheaded, for not having improved
e best advantage, as it was asserted that he had it in his
e almost the whole of the duke of York's army.
ion of the southern provinces of France was at this time
erious dangers to the new republic. It is well known
es and people of these provinces were among the most
ote the dethroning of the king on the 10th of August,
erefore, somewhat extraordinary that the same men
g the first to rebel against the authority of the conven-
aidable union which took place under the name of
ssion, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Tou-

lon, in the course of the months of June and July, se
almost the dissolution of the existing authorities. A
was, however, dispatched against Lyons, and the city
The Marseillois, in the mean time, opened their gate
of the republican army, and submitted; but the peo
tered into a negociation with the English admiral, lor
then cruising in the Mediterranean; and he took poss
town and shipping, in the name of Louis XVII. and
stipulation that he should assist in restoring the consti

Among the victims of popular resentment, which f
riod, was the celebrated general Custine, whose formi
ever might have been his subsequent demerits, ought
him more lenient treatment. He was recalled to Par
mand of the northern army, in the beginning of July
committed, by a decree of the convention, a prisone
He was tried by the revolutionary tribunal, and a
maintained an improper correspondence with the Pr
commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected
nities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes.
say that he was found guilty: to be suspected was
demned; and the populace of Paris, now accustome
beheld the sacrifice of their former defender with cal
with blind exultation.

The trial and condemnation of the queen immediat
of general Custine. She had been removed, on the n
August, from the Temple, to a small and miserable
prison of the Conciergerie, where she remained till sh
fore the revolutionary tribunal, on the 15th of October
cusation consisted of several charges, many of which w
incredible; but few of them appear to be sufficiently
evidence; but had the conduct of Marie Antoinette b
ceptionable than there is reason to believe it was, it is n
that she would have escaped. After an hour's consul
the jury brought in their verdict—" Guilty of all the

The queen heard the sanguinary sentence with dign
tion; perhaps, indeed, it might be considered by her
ment than as a release. On the the 16th of October
o'clock in the forenoon, she was conducted in a coach
of the Conciergerie, to a scaffold prepared in the Place
where her unfortunate husband had previously suffer
who crowded the streets as she passed, exhibited ne
compunction. Her behaviour, as her last sufferings
decent and composed. She met her fate in the thirt
her age.

Soon after the convention had brought the queen to t
entered upon the trial of Brissot, and his supposed acc
sot was charged with having said and written, at the co
the revolution, that Fayette's retiring from the public
tional misfortune; that he distinguished himself three
cobin club by speeches, of which one provoked the r
nies, another the massacre of the patriots in the Cham
the third the war against Austria.

Upon these and other vague accusations Brissot,
more of the convention were brought to trial before th
tribunal, on the 24th of October; a few days afterwar

used members to be accomplices in a conspiracy which
st the unity and indivisibility of the French republic;
immediately condemned them all to the punishment
é, after he had heard his sentence, stabbed himself;
g twenty-one were executed on the 30th of October.
and intriguing Egalité, late duke of Orléans, was
t to the block. He was accused of having aspired to
om the commencement of the revolution; but how
charge was, it is not easy to determine. He was con-
m the evening of the 6th of November, to the place
d suffered with great firmness, amidst the insults and
populace.

f France, neither the exertions of the allies, nor the
Toulonese, were sufficient to produce the expected con-
ablishing a monarchical government. On the 30th
he garrison of Toulon made a vigorous sortie, in order
batteries which the French were erecting on certain
anon-shot of the city. The detachment sent for this
ished it, and the French troops were surprised and fled.
uch elated with their success, pursued the fugitives till
ly encountered a considerable force, which had been
eir retreat. At this moment, general O'Hara, com-
at Toulon, came up, and, while he was exerting him-
his troops with regularity, received a wound in his
ade prisoner by the republicans. Near a thousand of
allied forces, were killed, wounded, or taken prisoners

e capture of the British general O'Hara, the city of
cuated by the allies. On the morning of the 19th of
attack began before all the republican forces had time
was chiefly directed against the English redoubt (Fort
nded by more than three thousand men, twenty pieces
several mortars. This formidable post was attacked
ck in the morning, and at six the republican flag was

s then bombarded from noon till ten o'clock the same
allies and part of the inhabitants, having first set fire
d shipping, precipitated their flight. Two chaloupes,
ugitives, were sunk by the batteries. The precipitation
evacuation was effected caused a great part of the ships
o fall into the hands of the French, and was attended
melancholy consequences to the wretched inhabitants,
they observed the preparations for flight, crowded to the
anded the protection which had been promised them on
British crown. A scene of confusion, riot, and plunder,
hough great efforts were made to convey as many as pos-
ple into the ships, thousands were left to all the horrors
the hands of their enraged countrymen. Many of them
he sea, and made a vain attempt to swim on board the
were seen to shout themselves on the beach, that they
ire the greater tortures they might expect from the re-
ring all this, the flames were spreading in every direc-
ips that had been set on fire were threatening every in-
le, and blow all around them into the air. This is but a
n of the scene on shore, and it was scarcely less dreadful

on board the ships. Loaded with the heterogeneous
tions; with aged men and infants, as well as women; w
all the hospitals, and with the mangled soldiers from t
serted, their wounds still undrest—nothing could equa
the sight, except the still more appalling cries of distre
that filled the ear, for husbands, fathers, and children.

In the latter end of March, the party called the He
ing of Hebert, Momoro, Vincent, and some others,
brought to trial before the revolutionary tribunal, and
executed. A few days after, the celebrated Danton, Fa
Bazire, Chabot, and others, were arrested as conspir
republic, tried in a very summary way, and sentenced
sentence was executed on the 5th of April, 1794.

In consequence of these executions, the government
ever nominally republican, became almost entirely ves
the usurper Robespierre—a name which will probabl
with infamy to late posterity. Under his sanguinary
the prisons of Paris, at one time, contained between
thousand persons. Of the number of those tried an
have no precise account; but they in general appear
sacrificed in multitudes to a jealous and cowardly cr
demned with even the shadow of justice. In one of
slaughters, the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the l
monarch, having been condemned on the most frivolo
executed the last of twenty-six persons, who were car
fold on the same day.

But, after the death of Danton, the fall of this tyran
rapidly approached. A strong party was secretly for
in the convention, headed by Tallien, Legendre, a
Finding themselves sufficiently strong, Tallien move
Robespierre and his creatures; which decree was passe
from every quarter. The president then ordered one
the hall to take Robespierre into custody; but such w
the presence of this man was accustomed to inspire,
hesitated to perform his duty, till Robespierre himsel
obedience, and followed the usher out of the hall. Th
conducted by a few peace-officers to the prison of th
but the administrator of the police on duty there, who
creatures, refused to receive them; and they were th
triumph than as prisoners, to the Hôtel de Ville.

In the mean time, Henriet, another leader of the par
arrested, but found means to escape and raise his par
post with him and Robespierre in the Hôtel de Ville,
tended to form themselves into a new convention, and d
representatives traitors to their country. The people,
espouse their cause; the national guard, who had at
orders with reluctance, forsook them; and the deputi
dispatched for that purpose attacked them in the Hôte
don de l'Oise, after having read the proclamation of
rushed into the hall of the commune, with a sabre and
surgents were completely deserted, and now endeavou
arms against themselves. Robespierre the elder discha
his mouth, which, however, failed of its effect, and n
in the jaw, while he received another wound from a
side. The younger Robespierre threw himself out o

an arm; Le Bas shot himself upon the spot; Couthon twice with a knife; and Henriot was thrown out of a

were immediately conveyed before the revolutionary heir persons being identified, they were condemned to the Place de la Revolution, where the two Robes- eteen others, were executed at seven in the evening of , 1794.

gn of this year, the arms of the new republic were suc- side against the allies. In Flanders, general Jourdan of Fleurus; and Charleroi, Ypres, Bruges, and Cour- d to the French; Ostend was evacuated; general Chair- ar Mons, which immediately surrendered; and the g compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands. , without opposition, entered Brussels and Antwerp. enai, Valenciennes, and Conde, were successively re- French armies, pursuing their success, took Aix-la- el Chairfait near Juliers, and made themselves master Bonn. Maestricht and Nimeguen were likewise taken. Provinces began now to be seriously alarmed. The nd were the first to feel their danger, and, in the month e states determined to acknowledge the French repub- ir alliance with England, and to enter into a treaty of ce with France. In some other provinces, resolutions adtholder and his government were likewise passed; and to be the temper of the people, even at Amsterdam, h of October the government of Holland published a prohibiting the presenting of any petition or memorial political subjects, and all popular meetings or assem- ple upon any occasion.

December, the French made a feeble attempt to cross were repulsed with loss; but on the 15th the frost set rigour, and opened a new road to the French armies. a work, the Maes and the Waal were both frozen over; , a strong column of French crossed the Maes near the . They attacked the allied army for an extent of above and, according to the report of general Pichegru, l, victorious in every quarter." The army of the allies them, and, in its retreat, endured incredible hardships ty of the weather and the want of necessaries. On the , 1795, general Pichegru having completed his ar- ade his grand movement. The French crossed the Waal its, with a force, according to some accounts, of 70,000 al attack was made upon Walmoden's position, between Arnheim. The allies were defeated in every quarter; unprepared either for resistance or for flight, suffered e elements and the enemy.

that the stadtholder issued manifestoes, proclamations, s to the Dutch peasantry, conjuring them to rise in a fence of the country. The French continued to ad- allies to fly before them, till Utrecht surrendered to them January, Rotterdam on the 18th, and Dort on the suc- The utmost consternation now prevailed among the stadtholder. The princess of Orange, with the younger

and female part of the family, and with all the plate ables that could be packed up, escaped on the 15th and the hereditary prince did not leave Holland till rene highness embarked at Scheveling, in an open b men to navigate her, and arrived safe at Harwich. palace of Hampton-court was assigned him for his still remains.

On the 20th of January, general Pichegru ente triumph, at the head of 5,000 men, and was rece ants with the loudest acclamations. The whole vinces either submitted to or was reduced by t weeks. An assembly of the provisional represent met on the 27th of January, and the whole gover and modelled nearly after the French plan.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, finding he vantage from the war, began to relax his efforts. Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on fa other; but it was not suspected that any defection place on the part of the Prussians, till they began to Rhine, which they soon after passed. A negociatio and France followed, which ended in a treaty of pea on the 5th of April, 1795, by which his Prussi abandoned the coalition.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by the tr the French republic and Spain, in which country t had made a progress equally successful and rapid. guards the entrance of Spain, and which had cost th 8,000 men, had been taken almost immediately, by the French army; Rosas was likewise taken; and republic had made themselves masters of the greate provinces of Biscay, and Catalonia, and were, in for the capital of the kingdom. Orders were there M. D'Yriarte, at Basle, immediately to conclude a accordingly signed by the Spanish minister and Basle, on the 22d of July.

About the middle of this year died the infant son Lewis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment, if i at least, it is probable, hastened his fate. He had sh healthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complain which confinement and inactivity are frequently fatal previous to his decease, he had been afflicted with a sw and another in his wrist. His appetite failed, and attacked with a fever. It does not appear that medic him, or neglected. The disease, however, continued on the morning of the 9th of June he expired in Temple, where he had been confined from the fatal s

Moved perhaps by this event, or influenced by the of the people of France, the committee of public ginning of July, proposed the exchange of the prince dauphin, who was likewise a prisoner in the Temple, delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumou ambassadors, Semonville and Maret, who had been se the law of nations, on a neutral territory, by an Aust emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the propos

year the princess was delivered to the Austrian em-
Switzerland, and the deputies were restored to their

f this year, an expedition was planned by the English
the coast of France, in that part where the royalists,
e of Chouans, were in arms against the republicans.
d consisted chiefly of emigrants, under the command
l. d'Hervilly, and the count de Sombreuil. They
of Quiberon, and took the fort of the same name;
enienced a sad reverse—the fort being surprised by the
, under the command of general Hoche, who killed
the greatest part of the emigrants, Chouans, and
t, amounting nearly to 10,000 men. The count de
hop of Dol, with his clergy who accompanied him,
migrant officers, who were made prisoners, were tried
mal, and put to death. Before the month of April,
r (1796), the force of the insurgents in this part of
ely broken, and their chiefs, Charette and Stoflet,
nd put to death.

he French army had crossed the Rhine near Man-
fed Mentz, to which they had already laid siege for
In this attempt, however, they were unsuccessful:
feat from the Austrians, and were compelled to re-
suspension of arms, for three months, was soon after
generals of the contending armies, which was ratified
powers.

ing year (1796), the campaign opened in the south,
il, when the rapid and signal victories of the repub-
er the command of the then obscure and little known
elebrated Buonaparte, ended, in little more than a
with Sardinia. The battles of Millessimo, Dego,
Lerino, and Monte Notte, compelled his Sardinian
such terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer;
eace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France,
17th of May.

rsued his success, and again defeating Beaulieu, the
at the battle of the bridge of Lodi, forced the shat-
the Austrian army to retire towards Mantua, pursued
e republican forces, while the remainder entered Mi-
of May, without further resistance, and the French
session of the whole of Lombardy.

which had been concluded on the Rhine was after-
but at length declared to be at an end on the 31st of
army of the Sambre and Meuse, under general Jour-
derable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into
empire; while another army, under general Moreau,
at Strasbourg, took the fort of Kehl, a post of great
opposite bank, and, penetrating through Bavaria,
s, endeavoured to form a junction with the army of
ttempt, however, did not succeed; both armies expo-
of fortune, and were obliged to retreat till they re-
. The situation of general Moreau was highly criti-
eat is acknowledged, on all sides, to have been con-
t military skill. The archduke Charles, who com-
rian army, followed Morveau in his retreat, and laid

siege to the fort of Kehl, which he re-took, after a
sistance on the part of the French.

To restore the affairs of Italy, the emperor assem
composed of the flower of the German troops servi
and gave the command of it to general Wurmser,
and ablest of the Imperial generals. This force, on i
successful. The French were repulsed, defeated,
raise the siege of Mantua. Buonaparte, however, su
charge; and, after a series of hotly-contested act
Wurmser was so reduced and harassed, that he w
himself up in Mantua, where he was closely besieg
who at the same time made incursions into the Tyro
tle of Roveredo, and the possession of Trent, becam
passes that led to Vienna. The Austrians, at the s
great effort, under general Alvinzy, to rescue the ga
his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole comple
design, and Mantua was soon after obliged to surren

The victories of Buonaparte compelled the pope
ples, and the inferior princes of Italy, to conclude
French thought proper to dictate. The victors likew
republic in Italy, at first called the Cispadane, but af
pine republic, to which they annexed such parts of t
as they judged convenient,

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious Buon
into the Tyrol, and directed his course towards the
The archduke Charles was opposed to him, but was u
progress. The republican armies had at length ad
Vienna, that the utmost alarm and confusion preva
The bank suspended its payments, and the emperor
forsake his capital, and remove to Olmutz. In this c
his affairs, his Imperial majesty opened a negociation
a short armistice was agreed to, and the preliminar
tween the emperor and king of Hungary, and the Fre
signed at Leoben, in the month of April, 1797.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken place at
a number of the French soldiers were murdered in th
city, the French armies, on their return, abolished th
ment of Venice, planted the tree of liberty in St. M
blished a municipality, and proposed to annex the ci
the new Cisalpine republic. But the conclusion of th
of peace with the emperor being protracted on accou
refusing to restore Mantua, as it is alleged it was stipu
in the preliminaries, they at length agreed to cede to
part of the territory of Venice, in compensation for

The definitive treaty of peace between France and
signed at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 17
the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Nethe
former territory in Italy. He received in return th
Istria, and Dalmatia, and the Venetian islands in
French were to possess the other Venetian islands.

While the negociation which terminated in this treat
the disputes of two contending parties were producing
in France. On the 5th of March the two councils dr
deprived one third of their members of their seats in th
the new deputies elected in their room took their seats

oon appeared that the anti-directorial party had received
cession of strength. The conduct of the directory was
ssed, retrenchment of expense in both civil and military
ed; the laws relative to polygamy were ordered to be
everity of those against priests and emigrants was greatly
ceedings of the directory, with respect to the Venetian,
elvetic republics, were severely censured, and it was
pen rupture between the directory and the councils was
rtunately for the party in opposition to the directory,
art with the latter. The army of Italy transmitted to
ost violent address relative to these disputes, and its ex-
ed by the other armies of the republic. The opposition
d irresolute in their measures they took for their defence:
ied with too much confidence on their supposed strength,
ssive majority in the council of five hundred, and two
irectors, Carnot and Barthelemi, were in their interests.
, and his party, supported by the armies, resolved on a
ent measure, which effectually decided the contest.
ng of the 4th of September, at the early hour of three
and the two directors who acted with him, ordered the
fired, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded with
. General Angereau, who was charged with the execu-
ers, repaired to the barracks, and addressed the guard
body, assuring them that he came only to preserve the
e conspiracy of royalists. The soldiers declared, with
ation, that he had only to command, and they were ready
einforced by the very men to whom alone the councils
efence. Angereau entered the hall of the five hundred,
gru, the president, with his own hands, and ordered about
f the most conspicuous characters to be arrested, and
e Temple. The halls were shut up, and the members
appointed to meet in other places which were pointed
arnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of
e councils. The former took advantage of the tumult,
er calmly awaited the storm, and was put under arrest.
ugru, and a number of the deputies who were seized by
afterwards transported to Cayenne, whence the two
others, have since found means to return to Europe.
he directory, or rather of the party of Barras, being now
re by this decisive victory over the councils, they pro-
nes of ambition and conquest, in order to give employ-
es, and afford them an opportunity of enriching them-
r. A tumult having taken place at Rome, in which a
as killed, they subverted the government of that city,
e, and erected a new republic, which they called the Ro-
hey likewise found a pretext to invade and levy heavy
Switzerland, which they endeavoured to transform into
under the title of the Helvetic republic, the government
in consequence, be delivered into the hands of their
partizans. Of these invasions the reader will find a
under the heads of Italy and Switzerland.

ng of the year 1798, a congress of deputies from the
man empire met at Rastadt, to negotiate a peace between
empire, on the basis of the treaty of Campo Formio:
ired thither, met the assembled plenipotentiaries, and ex-

changed with count Meerfeldt the ratification of t
the court of Vienna; after which he returned to
missioners Treilhard and Bonnier to conduct t
were protracted to a great length.

After the conclusion of peace with the empir
burthen which it was found difficult to support
it had been employed in the plundering of Rome
Switzerland, there still remained a large body of t
tivity that might ultimately prove dangerous to th
mediate invasion of England was therefore annou
and an army collected along the coasts of Franc
tain, to which was given the pompous title of the A
vinced, however, of the impracticability of such
were really intended, the project was changed for
ciently absurd, which was an expedition to Egy
of Buonaparte; and the ultimate object of whic
penetrate, either by the isthmus of Suez or by the
Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation
deavour to effect the overthrow of the British em
preparations were secretly making for this expe
amused with strange and monstrous stories of rat
the invasion of England, and troops were collecte
of France, while the navy of the republic wer
Toulon. At length the preparations being comp
barked on board the fleet, under the command o
about 40,000 men, chiefly the veterans of the It
from Toulon in the latter end of May. On the
off the island of Malta, where he demanded leave t
was refused by the grand-master; in consequenc
on the following day landed a body of troops.
Gozzo was taken by one detachment, while the se
were reduced by another. The greater part of th
fuge in the garrison, which, however, made but t
grand-master on the 11th agreeing to a capitulatio
island and its dependencies were surrendered to t

After leaving a garrison of 4,000 men in Malta,
on his voyage, about the 21st of June, and arrive
1st of July, having escaped the British squadron
pursuit of him under the command of admiral Ne
fortune appeared to attend him in all his first att
Alexandria was taken by assault, on the night of
of between two and three hundred men, and o
army appeared before Cairo, which was defended
considerable body of the Mamalukes; but on the
and carried. The beys, however, attempted to r
formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo;
pyramids, which was fought on the 26th, rendere
of the greater part of the country. In that engag
beys, with all the forces they could bring into the f
defeated. Two thousand of the Mamalukes were
dred camels with their baggage, and fifty pieces of
with a very trifling loss on the part of the French.

The conquest of Egypt now appeared to be com
of August the expedition received a terrible blow
struction of the fleet, by admiral Nelson, of which a

r historical summary of the affairs of England. The
es, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to
st, Buonaparte advanced into Syria; where, after gain-
ages, he received a decisive check before St. John
glish squadron, under Sir Sydney Smith, intercepted a
bringing his battering artillery and ammunition from
Sydney acting in concert with the Turks, he was com-
n every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and re-
ypt with the shattered remains of his army. From
e soon after took an opportunity to make his escape
, as we shall presently see, he became the author of a
inary revolution in the constitution and government.
ed attack on Egypt, contrary to the faith of treaties, so
ks, that they immediately declared war against the
and the emperor of Russia having accepted a subsidy
m, entered into a treaty of alliance with the Ottoman
ngland, and gave orders for a large body of troops to be
st France. Austria likewise appeared disposed to avail
ance of this new ally; and the French directory having
peror for an explanation on this subject, and received
deemed satisfactory, sent orders to general Jourdan to
th the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratis-
gainst the march of the Russian troops. He executed
e 1st of March, 1799; and nearly about the same time,
te, at the head of an army of observation, passed the
, invested Philipsburg, and summoned that fortress to
eneral Ney sent a similar summons to Manheim, which
ed its gates to him. Yet, notwithstanding these pro-
nch ambassadors declared to the congress of Rastadt,
d sat so long had as yet come to no conclusion, that
ements were undertaken solely to prevent the inter-
rt of Petersburg, and accelerate a general peace. The
t was broken up, and two of the three French plenipo-
ed inhumanly murdered, as they were leaving the town,
hussars, or persons who had assumed that disguise.
f Vienna being now certain of the aid of Russia, the
nder the command of the archduke Charles, passed the
f March, and the war, which has so long desolated
ed. Fortune, at first, appeared to declare in favour of
dy of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaff-
uahia, were opposed by a detachment of Austrians,
, taking the general and three thousand men prison-
also successful for a short time in Italy. Their troops
le of Tuscany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced,
January, to the cruel necessity of formally renouncing
Piedmont, and retiring with his family and adherents
nce he derived his title. The king of Naples likewise,
n up arms, and invaded the Roman republic, after
uccessful as to obtain possession of Rome, was totally
liged to take refuge in the island of Sicily.
r the commencement of hostilities with Austria, the
vanced a fatal reverse. On the 25th of March, general
the Austrians near Stockach, but was defeated, and
disorder; and on the 26th of the same month general
rench on the Adige near Verona, and again defeated

them on the 30th. On the 14th of April, marsh
with the first column of the Russian troops, and the
became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th of
Austrians and Russians passed the Oglio, and dro
them. They then crossed the Adda, and Suwarr
feated Moreau at Cassans; and so decisive was his
Serrurier and three thousand men were taken prisone
its gates to the conquerors on the 30th. Peschiera
of May, and, on the 10th, Pizzighetone surrende
on the 12th the Austrians entered Bologna, and
prisoners; and on the 23d they took possession o
mont, the French, notwithstanding the efforts of
and Joubert, beheld themselves successively depri
holds. The Austrians entered Turin on the 27th
tadel surrendered on the 20th of June. Mantua,
so strong a place, surrendered on the 30th of J
sandria on the same day; and such was the succ
that the French were obliged to abandon the whol
a small portion of the adjoining territory only exc
of August a desparate battle was fought between
Austrians and Russians at Novi, in the territory of
French are supposed to have lost not less than te
this victory was purchased with a loss nearly as gr
allies.

On the side of Switzerland, the affairs of the re
less disastrous aspect—Massena having obtained sc
These, however, were soon counterbalanced by ev
to the allies; the French general being obliged
which was immediately occupied by the Austrian

Italy being now rescued from the power of the Fr
that Suwarrow should proceed with his army to
the French back into their own territories, and c
he was to endeavour to re-establish the fallen mo
tory were now convinced of their danger, and ma
reinforce their armies in Switzerland, and the mos
for a vigorous defence. General Massena, who co
lican army in that country, displayed great militar
uncommon abilities in all his enterprises. Know
effected a junction with the troops already acting
be inevitably overpowered, he determined to attac
variety of actions, during four whole days between
September, repeatedly defeated the Austrian and R
thousands being killed and taken prisoners, among
was the brave Austrian general Hotze.

Suwarrow, in consequence of his arrival in S
impossible to join his defeated and dispirited allie
rendered abortive; he was under the necessity o
drawing into Germany; and during his retreat ove
with snow, and through roads nearly impassable,
loss as could have ensued after a signal defeat.

On the 13th of October, the celebrated Buon
means to escape from Egypt, and elude the vig
cruizers, arrived in France, accompanied by gener
other officers. The recent losses which the republ
the imminent danger which threatened its very e
weakened the authority of the directory, and prep

f the constitution and government, which had proba-
ed by the Abbé Sieyes, and which the popularity and
t of Buonaparte enabled him to carry into execution.
towards this revolution was taken by the council of
on the 9th of November passed a decree consisting of
chief of which were, that the legislative body should,
be removed to St. Cloud; that Buonaparte should be
carry into execution this decree; and, for this purpose,
ted commandant of all the troops in Paris or its neigh-
guard of the legislative body, of that of the directory,
ary national guard; that this decree should be com-
ssage to the council of five hundred, and to the execu-
d transmitted to all the communes of the republic by
riers. After this decree had been passed, the council
ded to publish an address to the French nation, justi-
own conduct, and asserting "that the common safety,
perity, were the objects of this constitutional measure:
f Paris were desired to remain tranquil, since the pre-
lative body would soon be restored to them, and the re-
whether the legislative body was worthy and capable
means of happiness."—General Buonaparte soon after
bar, accompanied by several officers of his staff, and
ncil in a short speech, in which he represented that the
ishing, and they knew it, but that the decree they had
saved it:—"Yes," said he, "we will have a republic
liberty, and national representation. I swear it in my
of my companions in arms." Most of the members
these acclamations with applauses; and the assembly
louts of "Live the Republic."

day the council of five hundred having been informed,
m the council of ancients, of the decree passed by the
d in consequence to the following day, when they were
loud. In the sitting which was held there on the 10th,
committee of seven members commissioned to make a
situation of affairs. The sitting was very tumultuous,
exclaiming, "No dictator! No dictatorship!"—The
a letter from the director Barras, stating that "the
ompanied the return of the illustrious warrior, to whom
happiness to open the career of renown, the distin-
of confidence shown him by the legislative body, and
e national representation, had convinced him that the
were then surmounted, and the interest of the armies
hat he returned with joy to the rank of a simple citizen,
r, complete, and more respectable than ever, the desti-
blic, of which he had been one of the depositories."

f the members were urging the propriety of choosing
t in the room of Barras, general Buonaparte entered the
y some officers and grenadiers, and walked up towards
A violent agitation immediately ensued among the
of whom rushed precipitately from their seats, and en-
ie him by the collar; others cried, "Out-law him!"
ted to stab him with a dagger, but the blow was warded
er. The tumult increased to a most violent degree.
quitted their seats;—the president, Lucien Buonaparte,
dge of office on the table, and resigned, upon w[illegible]

doors of the hall were opened, and an officer entere
claiming, " General Buonaparte orders the hall tc
order was carried into effect in a few minutes.

The sittings were resumed in the evening, and
took the president's chair. A decree was passed, a
tory, and appointing a consular government of thi
Buonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared,
to be faithful to the republic: after which the c
sittings till the 20th of February. On the same
ancients met also at St. Cloud, the proceedings of v
copy of those of the council of five hundred. The
abolishing of the directory, the appointment of a c
three persons, and then adjourned till the 20th of
same decrees, sixty-one members were expelled
body ; and thus was the national representation, ar
stitution of the third year, overturned by one man
a few soldiers.

A new constitution has since been framed, which h
the armies, and, apparently, at least, by the people.
tion the whole of the executive, and, indeed, almo
appears to be vested in the first consul, general Buo
moderation or success he may employ it, time must
completely quelled the insurrections in the weste
France. He professes an ardent desire of peace, and
the government of Great Britain on that subject have
tioned in our account of the affairs of England. He
applications to the court of Vienna, which, as Rus
withdrawn from the coalition against France, may po
to a treaty of peace, though, at present, the most act
making on both sides for a renewal of the campaign

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GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE LATE ROYAL FAM

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the Frenc
24, 1754; married April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinet
Austria, born November 2, 1755; succeeded his g
XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11
January 21, 1793.—The issue of Lewis XVI. and M
1. Madame Maria-Theresa-Charlotta, born Decer

Brothers and Sisters to his late Maj
1. Lewis Stanislaus-Xavier, count de Provence, b
1755; married May 14, 1771, Maria-Josepha-Louis
king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.
2. Charles Philip, count d'Artois, born October
November 6, 1773, to Maria-Theresa, daughter of th
born Jan. 21, 1776, by whom he has issue:
Louisa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.
A princess, born August 5, 1780.
Another princess, born Jan. 8, 1783.
3. Maria-Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaveria, born Sept. 2

# NETHERLANDS.

een provinces, which are known by the name of the
ls, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and after-
rcle of Belgium; or Burgundy, in the German empire.
he general name of the Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low
their situation in respect of Germany.

## UATION, AND BOUNDARIES, OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| 360 } | between | { 49 and 54 North latitude. |
| 260 } | | { 2 and 7 East longitude. |

nded by the German Sea, on the north; by Germany,
ine and France, south; and by the British Channel, west;
the sake of perspicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of
rovinces under two great divisions: first, the *Northern*,
the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name
: secondly, the *Southern*, containing the French, and late
erlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking,
and, Overyssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen,
nd Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sove-
enerally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces*.

## AND EXTENT OF THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| 150 } | between | { 51 and 54 North latitude. |
| ear- } | | { 3 and 7 East longitude. |
| ame } | | |

: 10,000 square miles, with 275 inhabitants to each.
g, from Templeman's Survey of the Globe, is the most
count we meet with of the geographical division, includ-
and other islands:

quest of Holland by the French, and the establishment of a repub-
that of France, the country, including the whole Dutch territory
s, has been divided into fifteen departments, of which the following
d chief towns:

| Departments. | Chief towns. |
|---|---|
| Amstcrdam | Amsterdam |
| Utrecht | Utrecht |
| Friesland | Leuwarden |
| Delft | Delft |
| The Ems | Groningen |
| Rees and Aa | Assen |
| North and Zuider Zee | Alkmaar |
| Sparen | Haarlem |
| Yssel | Zwoll |
| Rhine | Zutphen |
| Merwe | Dort |
| Waal | Nimeguen |
| Scheldt | Middleburg |
| Mark | Breda |
| Meuse | Bois le Duc |

| | Countries' Names. United Provinces. | Square Miles. | Len. | Br. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calvinists. | Overyssel | 1900 | 66 | 50 |
| | Holland | 1800 | 84 | 52 |
| | Guelderland | 986 | 50 | 40 |
| | Friesland | 810 | 44 | 34 |
| | Zutphen | 644 | 37 | 33 |
| | Groningen | 540 | 45 | 37 |
| | Utrecht | 450 | 41 | 22 |
| | Zealand | 303 | 29 | 24 |
| | Texel and other islands | 113 | | |
| | Total | 7546 | | |

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] These p to Englan 90 miles, upon the east side of the English Cha narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between t great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabit the sea by means of dykes, which they have rais with incredible labour and expense. The air of is therefore foggy and gross, until it is purified by when the east wind usually sets in for about fo harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air and wood to mould, more than in any other countr of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and o cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice favourable to vegetation; but, by the industry o making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantag country to live in, especially to foreigners. Her nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams whole face of the country, when viewed from a tow appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, try serve as high-roads, are in the summer month the smell.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The chief rivers vinces are,—the Rhine, one of the largest rivers in the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many sm these, and a prodigious number of canals; but the bours in the United Provinces; the best are those voetsluys, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, thou and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] The quant here is not consumption; but, by draining their bogs and mars excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and D size; and they make prodigious quantities of the be in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used ther of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, a have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highl horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bea

hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of passage, untry about the middle of August, with their young, ebruary following. Their river-fish is much the same ir sea-fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their ater. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have yster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing ll tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all these inconve- stry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of d commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (ex- and strangers), as can be met with in any part of

, INHABITANTS, MAN- } The Seven United Pro-
NS, AND DIVERSIONS. } vinces are perhaps the best pot of the same extent in the world. They contain, ac- st accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and itants, according to a public account given in 1785; ty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands y, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of . The manners, habits, and even the minds of the he inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general e formed by their situation, and to arise from their na- eir country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, centive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which e intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even lled their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, y a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. food they earn out of the sea, by their herring-fisheries: of most of their valuable fish to the English, and other ake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their g to their coldness with regard to every object that does concern their own interests; for, in all other respects, eighbours and peaceable subjects.

f the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. hough slow of understanding, are manageable by fair ea-men are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill- people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and h other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking sed by old and young of both sexes; and as they are ge- upon ways and means of getting money, no people are A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every lity. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the nhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought from discovery; but they are in general quiet and in- ir own country, which exhibits but few instances of or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking oth sexes, it is owing, in a great measure, to the nature climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to ooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice ir tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual nt humour, nor warm enough for love; so that the softer e natives of this country; and love itself is little better

than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, co
it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but
heard of, rather than felt, and as a discourse that b
than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecunia
are certainly the most expert of any people; as to
quiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary sci
It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend
be that what it will; nor does it often enter into th
cious people, that the common course of expense
venue; and when this happens, they think, at least,
year to no purpose; and the report of it used to di
them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extrav
countries. But this rigid frugality is not so univer
as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury
been introduced among them, as well as the othe
Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fa
some of them discover more propensity to gallantry
in former times. No country can vie with Holla
those inhabitants whose lot, if not riches, is at leas
ficiency, and where fewer failures or bankruptcie
the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, th
rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity an
to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeede
works of draining their country of those immense d
had overflowed so large a part of it during many a ge
time, they brought under their subjection and com
seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thi
and made them the principal bulwarks on which they
tion and safety of their territories against the dange
they have done by covering their frontiers and citi
sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice
undations are let in, and they become, in a few
From that frugality and perseverance by which they
characterised, they were enabled, though labouring
difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke,
powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing h
forming new establishments in Africa, and the East an
expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a de
most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wond
their military and marine establishments, maintainin
brated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II.
than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ships of th
of frugality being now less universal among them, t
mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries
French; and their nobility and high magistrates, wh
trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in the
furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from
lish, who seem to have borrowed from them the near
ing-booths, skittle and other grounds, and small pie
form the amusements of the middling ranks, not to m
organs, and other musical inventions. They are th
the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crow
upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men a
ing along, or rather flying, with inconceivable veloci

heir dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of
jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddi-
n; all which, added to the natural thickness and clum-
ersons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These
ail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly
faring people.

Since the irruption of the French into Holland, the
of the Batavian republic has declared that no religion is
id by the state; but prior to that event the established
the presbyterian and Calvinism; none but presbyte-
ted to any office or post in the government, excepting
t all religions and sects were tolerated, and have their
ngs or assemblies for public worship; among which the
were very numerous. And, indeed, this country may
a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation
toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God
he dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most
ns live together in the most perfect harmony and peace.
republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed
is religious principles; nor any hopes, by advancing his
a party, or to break in upon the government; and, there-
, men live together as citizens of the world; their dif-
ion make none in affection, and they are associated to-
mmon ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the
he laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts
nd equal freedom of speculation and inquiry.

] The natural language of the United Provinces is
ich is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the peo-
speak English and French. The Lord's Prayer runs
*der, die in de hemelin zyn, uwen naam worde geheylight:*
*lome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op*
*logelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onse schulden*
*rgeeven onse schuldenaaren: ende enlaat ons neit in ver-*
*vertast ons van der boosen.* Amen.

AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who
ves of this country, stand almost at the head of modern
lem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans,
rates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salva-*
y Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the
from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam,
n, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in con-
ity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that,
es of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved
ernment; witness the violent disputes about Arminian-
predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have
llent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gro-
and son, and Burman, are ranked among the principal of
s commentators upon the classics. In the other depart-
ature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise
heir employments, in universities, church, or state.

TIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harder-
neker.

ty of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest
ent in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a
nted books, has two thousand oriental manuscripts, many

of which are in Arabic; and a large sphere adap
system, and moving by clock-work. Here is also
an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht, in the province of
changed from a school into an university in 16
the privileges of the other universities, being entit
gistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is
the recreation of the students, on the east side of
the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seve
thousand paces in length, regularly planted with
middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the princip
from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries
every one may live as he pleases, without being
in his expenses, or so much as quitting his night-
or months together, foreigners of all ranks and co
here. The force of example is strikingly exhibit
ties; for frugality in expense, order, and composed
to study, and assiduity in all things, being the cha
tives, strangers who continue amongst them soon
and forms of living. And though the students li
study as much or as little as they think fit, yet th
markable for their sobriety and good manners, and
cess with which they apply themselves to their s
imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman-
even Jews, send their children here with as little s

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The pr
of which
teen ells in thickness, mounds, and canals, constr
to preserve their country from those dreadful inu
formerly suffered so much, are works equally stup
A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is w
subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty
house of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building
world; it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven in
the inside is equally convenient and magnificent.
containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and
found in Holland and the other provinces, particula
of Leyden; such as the effigies of a peasant of Ru
a knife ten inches in length, and is said to have live
was taken out of his stomach; but the truth of this
ful. A shirt made of the entrails of a man. Two
being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity
and tendons of the human body curiously set up b
Vander Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } is
wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to
the most commercial city in the world. Its convenie
and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyo
this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the b
and walks under trees planted on their borders, are ad
all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness
observed within doors. This city, however, labou
disadvantages—bad air, and the want of fresh whole

tants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotter-
nsterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants
6,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat
the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the mag-
ity of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors
l distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheap-
ions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are
bout 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been
ted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Leyden
fine cities, as well as famous for their universities.
a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the
Peter the Great of Muscovy, in person, served his ap-
hip-building, and laboured as a common handicraft.
of Guelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital

IGATION, CANALS, AND OF TRAVELLING. } The usual way of pas-
sing from town to town is
, called treckscuits, which are dragged along the canal
ow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different
are to stop, precisely at the appointed instant of time.
ravelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely
inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals
nd commerce is not only carried on through the whole
they communicate with the Rhine and other large ri-
ions of every country are conveyed at a small expense
s of Germany and Flanders. A treckscuit is divided
apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the first for
the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and
s, a traveller is astonished when he beholds the effects
and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined
r with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the midst
pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, sta-
cc. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of
ond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine
much of their time there smoking, reading, or viewing
to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch
d comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is
facture that they do not carry on, or a state to which
de. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their
cupness of their labour, and, above all, by the water-
, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond
s. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of
oods may be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in
where they grow. The East-India company has had the
e fine spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the
t wars with England, was extremely opulent and power-
pital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in
opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here
ppear in greater splendour than the stadtholder; and some
bjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence
country. They have other settlements in India; but the
a, and the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendez-vous of
l nations, outward or homeward bound, have been lately
English. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an
0 men, the Dutch made some dispositions to ship them-

selves off to their settlements in India; so great wa
the French government. Not to mention their ha
eries, which they have carried off from the native pro
stinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft
salt; their oil-mills, and starch manufactures; t
paper manufactures; their fine linen and table d
mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in
their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotto
tures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing; the grea
and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by
their East-India trade; and their general industry
commerce, however, must have greatly suffered dur
and especially since the French entered the countr

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, th
India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly
immense wealth, divided forty per cent. and someti
year 1660; at present the dividends are much red
dred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on a
with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four
as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent; b
India company the same year divided no more tha
cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. T
dam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was
direction: it is said, by sir William Temple, to c
treasure, either real or imaginary, that is know
world. What may seem a paradox, is, that thi
paying any interest, that the money in it is worth s
the current cash is in common payments. Mr. And
the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank
the vaults of the stadthouse, amount to thirty-six
only to thirty) millions sterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Before
Holland, in January 1795, the United Province
confederacy, yet each province had an internal go
tution independent of the others; this government
of that province; and the delegates from them form
in whom the sovereignty of the whole confedera
though a province should send two or more delegate
had no more than one voice in every resolution; a
lution could have the force of a law, it must be a
province, and by every city and republic in that
mality in times of great danger and emergency has b
resolution of the states of a particular province m
nimously.

The *council of state* consisted likewise of deput
provinces; but its constitution was different from t
neral: it was composed of twelve persons, whereof G
Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Fries
sel, one; and Groningen, one. These deputies, hol
provincially, but personally. Their business was t
and ways and means for raising the revenue, as we
that were to be laid before the states-general. The
vinces were styled "Noble and Mighty Lords," bu
"Noble and Most Mighty Lords;" and the states-g
Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States-genera

" Their High Mightinesses." Subordinate to these two chamber of accompts, which was likewise composed of ties, who audited all public accompts. The admiralty te board, and the executive part of it was committed to the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Holland the people had nothing to do either in choosing tives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which took ublic deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty- o were chosen for life, and every vacancy among them the survivors. The same senate also elected the de- ent the cities in the province of Holland.

rticulars are mentioned, because, without a knowledge npossible to understand the history of the United Pro- death of king William to the year 1747, when the stadt- made hereditary in the male and female representatives f Orange. This office in a manner superseded the con- y described. The stadtholder was president of the states ce; and such was his power and influence, that he e deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province this he held the moulding of the assembly of the states he had no voice in it: in short, though he had not d more real power and authority than some kings; for, uence and revenue he derived from the stadtholdership, principalities and large estates of his own. The present William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the late liam Charles, who married Anne, princess royal of Great ed in 1751.

and under this constitution was called a republic, yet its s far from being of the popular kind: nor did the people ee of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It ier an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of not suffered to have the least share in any part of the go- even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be ob- ry few persons in the state dared speak their real senti- nd they were generally educated in principles so extreme- t they could not relinquish them when they entered more

t to the administration of justice in this country, every 's tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal etty and county courts; and it is said that justice is no ted with more impartiality.

parture of the stadtholder, on the conquest of Holland by 1795, a convention was assembled to administer the go- frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The presented was rejected by the people in the primary as- another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. his constitution, which is a close copy of that of France, t is vested in a legislative body, consisting of two cham- rectory; the presidents of the two chambers are changed t, and a part of the legislative body and the directory go , as in France.

.] The late government of the United Provinces propor- xes according to the abilities of each province or city. nsisted of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, ony; so that the public revenue amounted annually to

about two millions and a half sterling. The province
nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate
the seven United Provinces contributed towards the pu

Of every million of ducats, the province of
Holland contributes - - - -
Zealand - - - - -
Friesland - - - - -
Utrecht - - - - -
Groningen - - - - -
Guelderland - - - -
Overyssel - - - - -

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Hol
Amsterdam furnished upwards of 320,000. The tax
vinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without
author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped
the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of tra
goods and merchandise are exceedingly low. The expe
by the present war, and the contributions required by
the French, cannot but have considerably increased the
year 1797, after the defeat of the Dutch fleet by admir
of eight per cent. on all income was imposed for the re-
their navy. A forced loan of three per cent. on all capit
and a tax of seven per cent. besides, on all income, ha
lately decreed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The numb
in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly a
forty thousand: twenty-five thousand of whom serve in
of them are Scots and Swiss; and in time of war they
ments of Germans. The chief command of the army w
stadtholder, under whom was the field-marshal genera
force of the United Provinces used to be very great, an
fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has for
much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain c
increase it; and they have great resources for that purp
it must be in a very feeble and shattered state, in cons
surrender of admiral Lucas's squadron at the Cape of G
victory gained by admiral Duncan, and especially the s
fleet in the Texel to admiral Mitchel; since which, howe
has been published, which makes their naval force an
ships of the line and seven or eight frigates.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of t
ful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into
one for papists, and the other for protestants. This bran
at Utrecht, where they transact their business. The nob
if they propose a son to be a knight, enter his name in th
pay a large sum of money to the use of the poor maintaine
and the candidate succeeds in rotation, if he brings wit
his nobility for four generations on the father's and mot
ensign is a cross pattie, enamelled white, surmounted
black; above the cross is a ball twisted, white and bla
pendent to a broad black watered ribband, which is w
neck. The same cross is embroidered on the left breas
garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Pr
States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one

r a bundle of seven arrows close bound together, in al-
n confederate provinces, with the following motto;
*e crescunt.*
ee the Austrian Netherlands.
nce of Orange and Nassau, hereditary stadtholder,
d admiral of the Seven United Provinces, and knight
born March 19, 1748; married, in 1767, the princess
Wilhelmina, of Prussia, born in 1751; by whom he

ouisa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770; married to
nce of Brunswick.
deric, hereditary prince, born Aug. 2, 1772; married,
princess Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, of Prussia.
orge-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774.
r has one sister, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1743, and
ince of Nassau Wielbur.

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## ID LATE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| iles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| 200 } h 200 } | between | { 49 and 52 North latitude. 2 and 7 East longitude. |

BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, East; by Lorraine, Champagne, and ice, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the t.

y so lately belonged to three different powers, the Au- and Dutch, we shall continue to distinguish the pro- belonging to each state*.

### 1. Province of BRABANT.

| ons. | Chief Towns. | | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| nt - - | Bois-le-duc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom, Grave, N. E. | N. | 1374 |
| | Lillo, Steenbergen | N.W. | |

the Austrian Netherlands are now in possession of the French, them an integral part of their republic, and divided them into of which the following are the names and chief towns:

| ARTMENTS. | CHIEF TOWNS. |
|---|---|
| ille... | Brussels |
| wo Nethes | Antwerp |
| Ourthe | Liege |
| ys | Bruges |
| Lower Meuse | Maestricht |
| ambre and Meuse | Namur |
| Foresta | Luxemburg |
| Scheldt | Ghent |
| Jemappe | Mons |

| Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| 2. Late Austrian Brabant - - | Brussels, E. lon. 28 min. N. l<br>Louvain<br>Vilvorden<br>Landen |

2. ANTWERP, and, 3. MALINES, are provi
Brabant, though surrounded by it; they were
of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S.

| | |
|---|---|
| Chief Towns - - - - - | Limburg, E. long. 50-37. late sub.<br>Maestricht<br>Dalem<br>Fauquemont, or<br>Valkenburg |

5. Province of LUXEMBURG

| | |
|---|---|
| Late Austrian Luxemburg | Luxemburg, E. lon 49-15. |
| French Luxemburg - - | Thionville<br>Montmedy |

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, late su

| | |
|---|---|
| Chief Towns - - | Namur, on the Sambre and E. long. 4-50. N. lat. 50-3<br>Charleroi on the Sambre. |

7. Province of HAINAULT.

| | |
|---|---|
| Late Austrian Hainault | Mons, E. long. 3-33 N. lat. 50-30.<br>Aeth<br>Enghien |
| French Hainault—now in the department of the North - - - | Valenciennes<br>Bouchain<br>Condé<br>Landrecy |

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

| | |
|---|---|
| Subject to France—now in the department of the North - - - | Cambray, E. of Arras, 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.<br>Crevecœur, S. of Cambra |

9. Province of ARTOIS.

| | |
|---|---|
| Subject to France—now in the department of the Straits of Calais | Arras, S.W. on the Scar long. 2-5, N. lat. 50-<br>St. Omers, E. of Boulog<br>Aire, S. of St. Omers<br>St. Venant, E. of Aire<br>Bethune, S.E. of Aire<br>Teroucn, S. of St. Omer |

## 10. Province of FLANDERS.

| ions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|
| s - - | Slus, N.<br>Axel, N.<br>Hulst, N.<br>Sans van Gent, N. | 280 |
| Flanders | Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. long. 3-36. N. lat. 51.<br>Bruges, Ostend, Newport } N.W. near the sea<br>Oudenard on the Scheldt<br>Courtray, Dixmude } on the Lis<br>Ypres, N. of Lisle<br>Tournay on the Scheldt<br>Menin on the Lis | 190 |
| rs—now ment of - - | Lisle, W. of Tournay<br>Dunkirk, on the coast E. of Calais<br>Douay, W. of Arras<br>Mardike, W. of Dunkirk<br>St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes<br>Gravelines, E. of Calais | 760 |

ND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ettled, both in winter and summer, than they are in Eng- and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruits. ndance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The rts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which ed to great perfection. Upon the whole, the late Au- nds, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the in- formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, gard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence s cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the nd. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country. or no mountains in the Netherlands; Flanders is a flat scarcely a single hill in it: Brabant, and the rest of the sist of little hills and valleys, woods, inclosed grounds, fields.

D CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese, Sambre, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheldt, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and

ND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brim- d in Luxemburgh and Limburg, as are some marble quar- e province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a species of earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossil nitre.

TS, POPULATION, MAN- TOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The Flemings (for so the inhabitants of Flanders and ries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt,

honest people; but their manners are somewhat i
they were known to fight desperately in defence
present they make no great figure. The late Aus
extremely populous; but authors differ as to thei
we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and
norant, and fond of religious exhibitions and p
diversions are the same with those of the peasant
countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of
mere French men and women in both of these parti
on the frontiers of Holland dress like the Dutch
guage is the same; but the better sort of the peo
dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] Before the conquest of this count
established religion was the Roman catholic; but
sects, were not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The
Cambray, Malines or Mechlin: the bishoprics,
werp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omers, Namur

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS. } The society of
duced the mos
Austrain Low Countries, in which they had many
Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, L
were their chief productions. Strada is an elegan
The Flemish painters and sculptors have great mer
by themselves. The works of Reubens and Van
ciently admired. The models for heads of Flamin
particularly those of children, have never yet bee
Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to t

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay,
first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of
great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. th
privilege of presenting to all the livings in the N
Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Some R
temples a
to be found in these provinces. Many curious
the like, ancient and modern, are also found here;
old edifices of every kind, in all their cities, giv
former grandeur. In 1667, some labourers found
ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and L

CITIES.] This article has emp[illegible]yed several larg
by different authors, but in time[illegible]hen the Austri
far more flourishing than at present. The walls of
capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen an
tures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now un
part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly so
and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals,
an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably con
traders; and soon after the rupture between Great B
during the American war, became more opulent
1781, it was visited by the emperor, who granted t
and franchises, and the free exercise of the protes
Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The s
Charleroi and Namur.

apital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourish-
s and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens,
rs. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufac-
g been the residence of the governor or viceroy of the
lands, is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the
European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry
hop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers and
g. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after
e Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of
king vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the
utting up the entrance of that river to ships of large
was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been
fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty; but they fore-
sperity of their own commerce was at stake.
served here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or
at there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than
f Europe; but since the decline of their trade by the
sh and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished
ble streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance
n the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and
ing is safe, reasonable, and delightful, in this luxurious
roads are generally broad causeways, and run for some
ght line, till they terminate with the view of some
. At Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen
s, itself being on a hill.

AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of
s are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwith-
asted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet
icularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray,
of its manufacture. These manufactures form the prin-
their commerce.

ION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands
d as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal
sovereign of the whole, was the sole director and sum-
This circle contributed its share to the imposts of the
t an envoy to the diet, but was not subject to the judi-
empire. At present they must be considered as annexed
under the same constitution and government.

] These arose from the demesne lands and customs:
s the trade of Austrian Flanders reduced, that they are
ave defrayed the expense of their government. The
lands brought in a considerable revenue to the nation.
he arms of Flanders are, *Or*, a lion sable, langued gules.
The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany
of the Rhine, was called Gallia Belgica by the Romans.
y before the Christian æra the Battæ removed from
marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese.
name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and
vians were treated by the Romans with great respect, be-
from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged
military services. Upon the decline of that empire,
other northern people, possessed themselves of these
, as they passed through them in their way to France,
s of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected
ruments, the heads of which were despotic within the

own dominions, Batavia and Holland became
many, to which it had been united under one
Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th centur
authority was lodged in the three united powers,
bles, and the Towns. At last, they were swallowe
Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family
the year 1477, to the House of Austria, and rank
empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy.
son, Philip II. who succeeded to the throne of S
bitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occ
surrection, the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and t
appearing at the head of it; and Luther's reform
about the same time in the Netherlands, his disc
persecution to join the malcontents. Whereupo
duced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhun
ings, was called the "Council of Blood," in orde
and many thousands were put to death by that cou
perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count
and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, who
their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that an
vinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defen
year 1579. And though these revolters at first we
cable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, th
courage were such, under the prince of Orange, an
afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops
forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free
1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by
independent state, under the title of THE UNITE
their sea-wars with England, under the commonwe
Charles II. they justly acquired the reputation of
power. When the House of Austria, which for s
Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which th
nued to carry on bloody wars, was become no lon
when the public jealousy was directed against that
was favoured by the government of Holland, who
prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spir
such, that they revived it in the person of the prin
wards William III. king of Great Britain; and d
that of queen Anne, they were principals in the
against Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of
been discussed in the history of that country, as
which led to a rupture between them and the
1780. As it was urged that they refused to fulfi
subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all
bound Great Britain to them were declared null a
had ever existed. By the war, their trade suffere
Negapatnam, in the East Indies, is the only place
by the late peace.

Probably, to their separation from Great Britai
the recent differences between the States-General and
II. who, from the exhausted state of several of th
seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accom
tious designs. In the year 1781, he had been allo

a his dominions, for which they had contended so de-
ome of queen Anne; and he now seemed willing to en-
ir territories. A conference concerning the boundaries
ive nations was proposed to the states; but before this
e he began to commit some acts of hostility, and ex-
mons a little by way of preliminary. Two small forts,
St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the
neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negocia-
emanded that the Dutch guard-ship should be removed
lo, in acknowledgment that one of the prerogatives of
jesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This be-
ith, the negociations were opened at Brussels, on the
1784, when several other demands of small portions of
le sums of money were made; the most material requi-
town of Maestricht, and its territory. For some time
s were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which
s the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged
with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending to-
rupture. On the 23d of August he delivered in his
e commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give
on Maestricht, in consideration of having the free and
gation of the Scheldt, in both its branches, to the sea;
of his confidence of the good intentions of the states, he
consider the river as open from the date of that paper.
his flags, in the execution of these purposes, he would
a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war
the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the in-
hts of his Imperial majesty, and to leave no doubt of his
solution to adhere to the propositions contained in the
s majesty could not forbear determining to send to sea,
, a ship under his flag, after having declared long enough
t manner he should consider all violent opposition that
e to the free passage of the said ship.

as stopped in its passage, as was another, ordered to sail
p the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dis-
ls, if the captains would engage to return to their respec-
ld not continue their voyage on the river; which they re-
This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to
urts, he could not look on this fact but as "an effective
f war on the part of the republic." In answer to their
topping the Imperial ships, which the emperor styled an
lag, and by which he declared them to have begun hostili-
ch minister at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court,
that as their sole aim was to support their uncontrovertible
ould not, with any appearance of justice, be considered as
ostile aggression."

parations were made for immediate hostilities against the
several hundred of the Imperialists, with some field-pieces,
wards the counterscarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer
e ordered the sluices to be opened, November 7, 1784,
d an inundation that laid under water many miles of that
nd the forts on the Scheldt, to preserve them from an at-
parties exerted themselves, in case they should be called
a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia
negociators and mediators, and succeeded in bringing

about a reconciliation. However, from the conduc
in the partition of Poland, and in demolishing the fo
barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a
the Scheldt, and to the East Indies—advancing from
another, it is apparent that the most solemn treaties
observed by some courts and statesmen than till they
nity, with ability, to break them.

During the progress of their contentions with the em
try was greatly distressed by the most unhappy
themselves, which it may be proper in this place brie
continued series of losses which they had sustaine
with Great Britain was peculiarly disgraceful to t
their settlements in the West Indies fell into the han
without resistance; their ships were captured, and tr
the disasters of the war excited the animosity of
against each other to the highest degree. The patric
party, attributed these defeats to the stadtholder, wh
pressed his predilection for the English, at the begin
can quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very
They accused him of having advised the aggression o
of contributing to their success by treachery. The
of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warl
dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent
mations made by the prince and by the council of st
of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful n
stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the
miserable succession of defeat and disgrace, which mi
the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these wer
tions of the patriots, the monarchical or Orange pa
antagonists of having involved the country in a da
time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accusations and vindication
parties, until at last, in the month of May 1786, th
orders to seize on Vreeswick, a post of importanc
Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal betw
the territories of South Holland; containing also the
both these provinces might be overflowed. This bro
between the troops of the stadtholder and the burgh
which the latter proved victorious. Some other unim
took place; but while the military operations were ca
languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amst
several persons were killed. This was followed by a
the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the
notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some o
wards took place, the disputes still continued with
insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was st
prisoner a night by the patriots.

These most turbulent commotions were, however,
the king of Prussia, who, for this purpose, marched
territories of the United States, and took possession o
terdam, and some other places, without resistance. T
awed both parties, that they quickly came to an arra
a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the
By this, the two contending parties were formally re
courts of London and Berlin guarantied the stadtholde

overnment of each province, in the House of Orange, ts and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; mpts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded lose union that subsisted between those two important

lution in Holland, in consequence of the irruption of the expulsion of the stadtholder from that country, has efly narrated in our history of France, to which we must

---

dependency of the Seven United Provinces was acknow- iards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, ied, the LOW COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlbo- of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, ; after which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these owledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, gn; and his daughter, the late empress-queen, remained em until the war of 1741, when the French reduced art of the province of Luxemburg; and would have from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and nglish, in favour of the House of Austria. The places French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year een in the preceding general table of divisions.

g after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, ces of the Netherlands belonging to the emperor deter- their liberty. The quarrel originated, like those in other l the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which ensive than his subjects wished to allow; and the em- e of force to assert his claims, the territories of the ecame a refuge for the discontented Brabanters.

of his Imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, go- sels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, llages in which they concealed themselves should be set eral Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, at he meant to become master of them by assault, and y soul he found in them to the sword.

n to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a hich they declared the emperor to have forfeited his au- various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence y, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs wed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so should enemy to his country.

ed at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. town in Austrian Flanders showed its determination to eror, and the most enthusiastic attachment to military d itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiastics ma- alour on this occasion; which perhaps was naturally to the emperor had been very active in depriving them of A formidable army was soon raised, which, after some lshes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tour- and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which

the patriots were victorious, though with the loss o
women and children. It reflects indelible disgrac
character, as well as on the commanders of the tro
mitted the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the un
fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder
ever they could obtain any booty: while the mercil
destroyed the men, but killed women and suckin
them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of chil
or pinned them against the walls of the houses.
cruelties, they insured success to their adversaries;
tries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almost instan
favour. They published a memorial for their jus
they gave as reasons for their conduct the many op
which they had been harassed since the death of
the unwarrantable extension of the Imperial prerogat
coronation oath, and which could not be done wit
part; the violence committed on his subjects, by for
houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to V
a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not c
had openly massacred his subjects; he had consig
lages to the flames, and entered into a design of e
who contended only for their rights. These things,
be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weal
natural courage of a nation, roused by repeated inju
by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of
and render them as impotent and abortive as they w
exampled." For all which reasons they declared the
DUST, *and for ever released from the House of* AUS
The emperor, now perceiving the bad effects of his
proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were trea
contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conque
before the end of the year they were masters of eve
therlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separa
of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon a
a change in the conduct of government as gave a vo
to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific
pold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliatory m
together with the mediation of Great-Britain, Pru
made a material alteration in the affairs of these pro
vention, which was signed at Reichenbach, on the
by the above-mentioned high contracting powers, h
re-establishment of peace and good order in the Bel
Imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great-Britain and Prussia, and t
Holland, became, in the most solemn manner, guara
ror and his successors for the sovereignty of the Be
re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchange
tracting parties within two months from the date of
executed at the Hague on the 10th of Dec. 1790.

The incursion of the French into these provinc
conquest, and the final cession of them to Franc
Campo Formio, have already been related in our
transactions of that people, which will supersede
repetition of it in this place.

# GERMANY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| s. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0 } 0 } | between | { 5 and 19 East long. / 45 and 55 North lat. } | 181,631. |

l Bohemia contain 191,573 square miles, with 135 inhabitants to each.

THE Empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the rth; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the rland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the

SIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even ers, are various and uncertain. We shall therefore ad- t are most generally received. Germany formerly was Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The nilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor ed it into ten great circles; and the division was con- et of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached , we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, sist.

e are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the

| | |
|---|---|
| rcles - - - - - - - | { Upper Saxony / Lower Saxony / Westphalia |
| ne middle - - - - - - | { Upper Rhine / Lower Rhine / Franconia |
| rcles - - - - - - - | { Austria / Bavaria / Swabia. |

### I. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

| | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| he | { Prus. Pomerania, N.E. | { Stettin, E. l. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30. | 4820 |
| | { Swed. Pomer. N. W. | { Stralsund | 2991 |
| b. c- of | { Altmark, west / Middlemark / Newmark, east | { Stendel / Berlin, Potsdam / Frankf. Custrin. | 10,910 |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Ch |
|---|---|---|
| Saxony Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector | Duchy of Saxony, N.<br>Lusatia, marq. east<br>Misnia, marq. south | Wi<br>Ba<br>Dr<br>86<br>Me |
| Thuringia, langr. west - - - | | Erfurt |
| The duchies of | Saxe Meinungen<br>Saxe Zeitz<br>Saxe Altenb. S.E.<br>Saxe Weimar, W.<br>Saxe Gotha, W.<br>Saxe Eisn. S. W.<br>Saxe Saalfeldt<br>(Subject to their own dukes) | M<br>Ze<br>Al<br>W<br>Go<br>Ei<br>Sa |
| The counties of | Schwarts. W.<br>Belchin. N.<br>Mansfel. N.<br>(Subject to their respective counts) | |
| The duchies of | Hall, mid. sub. to Prus.<br>Saxe Naumburg, subject to its own duke | |
| The counties of | Stolberg, north-west<br>Hohenstein, west | |
| Principality of - | Anhalt, north - - | De<br>Be |
| Bishopric of - - | Saxe Hall, west - - - | Ha |
| Duchy of - | Voigtland, south, subject to te elector of Saxony<br>Mersburg, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony | Pl<br>M |

## 2. Lower Saxony Circle

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Holstein D. north of the Elbe - | Holstein Proper, N.<br>Ditmarsh, west<br>Stormaria, south<br>Hamburg, a sovereign state<br>Wagerland, east | (Partly sub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holstein Gottorp) | Kiel, sub<br>stein<br>Meldorp<br>Glucksta<br>Hambur<br>N. L.<br>Lubec, a |
| Lauenburg | Duchy, north of the Elbe, subject to Hanover - - | | Lauenbu |
| Subject to the duke of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle - | D. Brunswic Proper,<br>D. Wolfenbuttle<br>C. Rheinstein, south<br>C. Blanckenburg | (middle) | Brun<br>N<br>Wol<br>Rhei<br>Blan |
| Subject to the elector of Hanover, K. of G. Britain. | D. Calenberg<br>D. Grubenhagen<br>Gottingen | | Hano<br>Grub<br>Got |
| Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover - | D. of Luneb. Proper<br>D. Zell | | Lune<br>Zell,<br>Ne |
| Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north - - - | | | Bremen, E.<br>53-30. an<br>Verden |

| | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq.M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| D. | D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke | Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54. | 4400 |
| | D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke | Gustrow | |
| | shopric, in the middle, subject p - - - - - | Hildersheim, an Imperial city | 1302 |
| | chy, south-east, subject to the ssia - - - - - | Magdeburg | 1535 |
| | uchy, subject to Prussia, south-east | Halberstadt | 450 |

### 3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Embden C. or East Fries. sub. to the king of Prussia | Embden, an Imperial city | 720 |
| Oldenburg, C. } sub. to the | Oldenburg | |
| Delmenhurst } K. of Den. | Delmenhurst | |
| Hoye } subject to | Hoye | 624 |
| Diepholt } Hanover | Diepholt | 220 |
| Munster B. sub. to its b. | Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52. | 3600 |
| Paderborn B. sub. to its bp. | Paderborn | 800 |
| Osnaburg B. sub. to its bp. | Osnaburg | 870 |
| Lippe C. sub. to its count | Lippe, Pyrmont | 400 |
| Minden D. } sub. to Pru. | Minden | 495 |
| Ravensberg C. } sub. to Pru. | Ravensberg | 525 |
| Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn | Arensburg | 1444 |
| Tecklenb. C. } sub. to their | Tecklenburg | 840 |
| Ritberg C. } respective | Ritberg | 129 |
| Schauenb C. } counts | Schauenburg | |
| Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia | Cleves, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40. | 630 |
| Berg. D. } sub. to the elec- | Dusseldorf | |
| Juliers D. } tor Palatine | Juliers, Aix | 1300 |
| Mark C. sub. to Prussia | Ham | 980 |
| Liege B. sub. to its own bp. | Liege E. lon. 5-56. N. lat. 50 40. | 1942 |
| | Huy | |
| Benth. C. sub. to Hanover | Bentheim | 418 |
| Steinfort C. sub. to its count | Steinfort | 114 |

### 4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Hesse Cassel, landg. N. | Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20. | 3500 |
| Hesse Marpurg, landg. N. | Marpurg | |
| Hesse Darmstadt, landg. | Darmstadt | 396 |
| Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves. | | |
| Hesse Homberg | Homberg | |
| Hesse Rhinefeldt | Rhinefeldt | 180 |
| Wonfeldt | Wonfeldt | |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | |
|---|---|---|
| Counties in the Wetteraw, south | Nassau Dillenburg | Each county subject to its own count of the House of Nassau. |
| | Nassau Diets | |
| | Nassau Hadamar | |
| | Nassau Kerberg | |
| | Nassau Siegen | |
| | Nassau Idstein | |
| | Nassau Wielburg | |
| | Nassau Wisbaden | |
| | Nassau Bielsteid | |
| | Nassau Otweiler | |
| | Nassau Usingen | |

Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state — Frankfort … E. lon. 8-… 10. an …

County of Erpach, sub. to its own count. — Erpach, …

Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state — Spire on t… Imperi…

Duchy of Zweybrucken, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts — Deuxpon…

County of Catzenelbogen sub. to Hesse Cassel, Catzene…

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Counties of | Waldeck, sub. to its own count | |
| | Solms, sub. to its own count | |
| | Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel | |
| | Isenburg, sub. to its own count | |
| | Sayn | |
| | Wied | |
| | Witgenstein | |
| | Hatzfield | |
| | Westerburg | |

Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot - - - -

Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel - - - -

## 5. Lower Rhine Circle.

| Divisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the elector Palatine | Heidelberg on the Nec… lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-… |
| | Philipsburg, Manheim |
| | Frankendal on the Rh… |

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | | Chief To… |
|---|---|---|---|
| Archbishoprics and electorates of - - | Cologne | Subject to their respective electors. | Cologne, on the … lon. 6-40. N. la… |
| | Mentz | | Bonn, on the Rh… |
| | | | Mentz, on the R… |
| | | | chaffenb. on th… |
| | Triers | | Triers on the Mo… |

Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state — Worms on th… an Imperia…

Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke. — Simmeren, …

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Counties of | Rhinegravestein | Rhi… |
| | Meurs, subject to Prussia | Mer… |
| | Veldentz, subject to the elector Palatine | Vel… |
| | Spanheim | Cre… |
| | Leyningen | Ley… |

## 6. FRANCONIA Circle.

| Divisions. | | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Wurtsburg, W. | Sub. to their | Wurtsburg | 1045 |
| Bamberg, N. | res. bishops | Bamberg | 1700 |
| Aichstat, S. | | Aichstat | 513 |
| Cullenback, north-east | Sub. to their respective | Cullenback | 900 |
| Anspach, S. | margraves | Anspach | 1000 |

| Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| f Henneberg, N. - - - - - | Henneberg | |
| arg, N. subject to its duke - - | Coburg | 405 |
| urghausen, subject to its duke - | Hilburghausen | |
| Nuremberg, S.E. an inde- | Nuremberg, an Imperial city | 640 |
| e - - - - - - - - | | |
| e great-master of the Teu- Mergentheim, S. W. | Mergentheim | 56 |
| Rheineck, W. | Rheineck | |
| Bareith, E. sub. to its own mar. | Bareith | 188 |
| Papenheim, S. sub. to its own C. | Papenheim | |
| Wertheim, W. | Wertheim | |
| Cassel, middle | Cassel | 120 |
| Schwartzburg, subject to its own count | Schwartzburg middle | 96 |
| Holach, S.W. | Holach | 220 |

## 7. AUSTRIA Circle.

cle belongs to the Emperor, as head of the House of Austria.

| Divisions. | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| Austria proper | Vienna, E. long. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints, Ens, west | 7106 |
| Stiria and Cilley, C. | Gratz, Cilley, S. E. | 5000 |
| Carinthia | Clagenfurt, Lavem. S.E. | 3000 |
| Carniola | Laubach, Zerknitz, | 4576 |
| Goritia | Trieste, St. Veits, S.E. Gorits, S. E. | |
| l - - - - - Inspruck | S.W. on the confines | 3900 |
| Brixen | Brixen | of Italy and Switz- |
| Trent | Trent | erland |

## 8. BAVARIA Circle.

| | Chief Towns. | |
|---|---|---|
| Subject to the elector Palatine as successor to the late elector of Bavaria | Munich. E. long. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landschut, Ingoldstadt, north-west: Donawert [Ratis. N. an Imperial city.] Amberg [Sultzbach], north of the Danube | 8500 |
| ject to its bishop. | Fressingen - - - - - - - | 210 |
| assau, sub. to its own - - - - - - | Passau, E. of the Danube | 210 |

| Subdivisions. | Ch |
|---|---|
| Duchy of Neuberg, subject to the elector Palatine - - - - - | Neuberg, W. o |
| Archbishop of Saltzburg, sub. to its own archbishop - - - | Saltzburg, S. E |

## 9. SWABIA Circle.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Duchy of Wurtemburg, subject to the duke of Wurtemburg Stutgard | Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron | | |
| Marquisates of Baden Baden, Baden Durlach | sub. to their own respective marq. | Baden, Baden, Durlach | |
| Bishopric of Augsburg, subject to its own bishop - - - - | | Augsburg, an Imp Hochstet, Blenhe near the Danu | |
| Territory of Ulm, a sovereign state | | Ulm on the Danu perial city | |
| Bishopric of Constance, sub. to its own bishop, under the House of Austria | | Constance, of Constan | |
| Principalities of Mindelheim, Furstenberg, Hohenzollern | Subject to their respective princes | Minde, Furste, Hohen | |
| Counties of Œting, Königseck, Hohenrichburg | | Œting, east, Königseck, so Gemund, nort | |
| Baronies of Waldburg, Limpurg | | Waldburg, sou Limpurg, nort | |
| Abbeys of Kempten, Buchau, Lindau | | Kempten on t Buchau, S. of Lindau, on stance.—In | |
| Imperial cities, or sovereign states | | Nordlingen, N. of Memmingen, east, Rotweil, on the N more. | |
| Subject to the House of Austria: Black Forest, N. W. Rhinefeldt, C. | | Rhinefeldt | |
| Marquisate of Burgau | | Burgau, east | |
| Territory of Brisgau on the Rhine | | Friburg and | |

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in an been already mentioned: and the word Germany is of Many fanciful derivations have been given of the wor bable is, that it is compounded of *Ger* or *Gar*, and *M* ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germa other names, such as Allemanni, Teutones: which h been their most ancient designation; and the Germa their country Teutschland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on ac tion, north, east, south, and west, but according to of the soil, which has a vast effect on the climate. T

is found in the middle of the country, at an equal di-
sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; towards
more temperate.

Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and
any places it is bare and sterile, though in others it is
itful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving; which
y change the most barren parts of Germany greatly to
. The seasons vary as much as the soil. In the south
rts they are more regular than those that lie near the
ound with lakes and rivers. The northern and eastern
vourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no
between the seasons of Germany and those of Great

s.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps,
from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria,
from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of moun-
in different parts of the empire.

The great passion which the Germans have for hunting
is the reason why, perhaps, there are more woods and
nding in Germany than in many other countries. The
est, which in Cæsar's time was nine days' journey in
x in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or par-
woods, which go by particular names. Most of the
, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests
every part of this country: almost every count, baron,
having a chase or park, adorned with pleasure-houses,
ed with game, viz. deer, of which there are seven or eight
ucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a
plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound
with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have
as venison, for their ordinary food.

D LAKES.] No country can boast a greater variety
rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube
called from the swiftness of the current, and which some
naturally, the finest river in the world. From Vienna to
Hungary, it is so broad, that, in the wars between the
ristians, ships of war have been engaged on it; and it's
r carriage to all the countries through which it passes is
The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cata-
lpools; it's stream is rapid, and it's course, without rec-
s and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The
rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Moselle.
lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones,
onstance and Bregentz. Besides these, are the Chiem-see,
Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-see, in the duchy of Carniola,
often run off, and return again, in an extraordinary

se lakes and rivers, in some of which are found pearls,
tains large noxious bodies of standing water, which are
estial, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many de-
lers.

WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is said to contain more
all Europe besides. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer
are well known. Those of Aix-le-Chapelle are still more
are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little

Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they twelve hours before they use them. Each of the waters, have their partisans in the medicinal faculty them, cure diseases internal and cutaneous, either by ing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisb and Wildungen, are likewise reported to perform wo diseases. The mineral springs at the last-mentione intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are i and Baden baths have been described and recommer physicians, and used with great success by many re is, however, not improbable, that great part of t ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and patients, and numbers of the company which crow parts of the world; many of whom do not repair but for amusement and conversation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abound places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, vitriol. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits, are fo varia, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carb jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pe and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabin princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria, Tyrol, and Lie curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, sides other fossils. In several places are dug up strong fancy represent different animals, and some human form. Many of the German circles furnish *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red be an antidote against poison.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] many very little, if at all, from the countries alre naturalists are of opinion, that, had the Germans, dle of this century, been acquainted with agricult would have been the most fruitful of any in Europe sent, what we may call rude, state, provisions are m tiful in Germany than in any other country per witness the prodigious armies which the most unc maintained during the late war, while many of th fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rhenish and Moselle wines differ from those in a peculiar lightness, and detersive qualities, more diseases than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our is four times as large. Their flesh, and the hams ferred by many even to those of Westmoreland, fo The *glutton* of Germany is said to be the most vora Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it cially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom fully and devour greedily. On these the glutton that it falls into a kind of torpid state, and, not b he is killed by the huntsmen; but though both be kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. H tiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy hors oxen, and sheep, are not comparable to those of Engl to their want of skill in feeding and rearing them.

kable for fine larks, and great variety of singing birds, o all parts of Europe.

, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } As the empire of Germany is a collec- states, each having a different government and police, peak with precision as to the number of its inhabitants; estimate has been formed of them:

| | |
|---|---|
| - - - - - - - | 1,100,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 200,000 |
| usatia - - - - - - | 380,000 |
| a - - - - - - - | 4,150,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 1,148,438 |
| f Saltzburg - - - - - | 250,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 565,890 |
| - - - - - - - | 200,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 40,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 400,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 70,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 260,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 130,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 116,664 |
| tates in the Circle of Westphalia - | 550,000 |
| erg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman - | 74,699 |
| - - - - - - - | 79,071 |
| - - - - - - - | 314,000 |
| hine - - - - - - | 289,614 |
| d Darmstadt - - - - - | 700,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 7,000 |
| e Maine - - - - - | 42,600 |
| nd Circle of Franconia - - | 1,326,041 |
| nia - - - - - - | 100,549 |
| ania - - - - - - | 462,970 |
| - - - - - - - | 1,007,232 |
| - - - - - - - | 77,898 |
| Magdeburg, and Mansfeldt - - | 271,461 |
| l Hohenstein - - - - - | 130,761 |
| - - - - - - - | 750,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 166,340 |
| - - - - - - - | 300,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 220,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 13,000 |
| - - - - - - - | 100,000 |
| | 17,166,868 |

tion extends only to the principal parts of Germany; nferior parts are added, the number in all, including the hemia, is now computed at twenty-six millions; and holders become better acquainted with agriculture and ulation must naturally increase among them.

s in their persons are tall, fair, and strong built. The erally fine complexions; and some of them, especially e all the delicacy of features and shape that are so be- e other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, whi
same as in France and England: but the better so
sively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if th
The ladies at the principal courts differ not much
the French and English, only they are not so exce
as the former. At some courts they appear in rich
are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. T
burghers' families, in many of the German towns,
rent manner, and some of them inconceivably fant
spect they are gradually reforming, and many of
different appearance in their dress from what they
years ago. As to the peasantry and labourers, th
parts of Europe, according to their employment
circumstances. The stoves made use of in Ger
with those already mentioned in our account of oth
and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies c
In Westphalia, and many other parts of Germany
two feather-beds, with sheets stitched to them, whi
a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy p
are the tenants of little needy princes, who squee
their own grandeur; but, in general, the circums
mon people are more comfortable than those of th

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hos
from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are
of titles, ancestry, and show. The Germans in g
to want animation, as their persons promise more
than they commonly exert, even in the field of battl
manded by able generals, especially the Italians, s
and Prince Eugene, they have done great thing
Turks and the French. The Imperial arms have
remarkable figure against either of those two nati
Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by Germ
possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy
enna; for in the two last wars the Austrians exhibi
litary valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the
of the German nation, especially the mechanical
works of art would be incredible, were they not wel
in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery,
painting, and certain kinds of architecture, some
have occasion to mention. The Germans have bee
temperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not
the vast plenty of their country in wine and provi
but such excesses are now less common. At t
though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, yet
monly finished by coffee, after three or four publi
given. But no people have more feasting at marri
on birth days.

The German nobility are generally men of so m
sharper, in other countries, especially in England,
credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than an
the sons of noblemen inherit their father's titles, whic
the heralds and genealogists of that country. The Ge
not quite so complaisant as those of some other count
who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the tab

ffect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity,
said to be somewhat too fond of gaming. Many of the
, having no other hereditary estate than a high sounding
er into their armies, and those of other sovereigns.
or title is attended with many other inconveniences,—
of property think the cultivation of their lands, though
their revenue, below their attention, and that they
themselves by being concerned in the improvement of

diversions of the Germans are the same as in England;
dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, peo-
epair to places of public resort, and drink the waters.
diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they
bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna
, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and
in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are
the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their re-
ges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans,
c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich
ed with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet
edge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set
of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diversion
in the night-time, servants ride before the sledges
and a gentleman, standing on the sledge behind, guides

Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the Ger-
re possessed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of
er and revenues, and were the tyrants of the em-
as of the people. Their ignorance was only equalled
tition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea
and made so glorious a stand, for many years, against
Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking
in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the
. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated
ohn Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the
popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a
half before him. Wickliffe was seconded by John Huss
Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct,
y burnt at the council of Constance.
tion introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we
the Introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in
Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of
ion, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the ele-
and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to
Calvinism †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as
in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany,
ion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, the

ny, in the year 1483, began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish
died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.
was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno
liged to fly from that kingdom, he settled at Geneva, in 1559, where
ew form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by se-
l states, who are now denominated Presbyterians, and, from their
Calvinists. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings
es in folio.

landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes who
orders in the church. Some even assert, that the n
and papists in the empire are now almost equal.
larly Moravia, and the Palatinate, as also Boher
sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empi
modes of worship and forms of church government
German princes, considered in a civil rather than a
protestant clergy are learned and exemplary in th
the popish ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP SEES.] These are d
by authors: some of whom represent Vienna as bei
archiepiscopal see of Saltzburg; and others, as bei
but depending immediately upon the pope. The
bishop of Mentz, who has under him twelve suffrag
the bishop of Bamberg, is said to be exempted from
Triers has three suffragans;—Cologne has four;—
—Saltzburg has nine, besides Vienna;—and Breme

At different periods since the Reformation, it ha
dient, to satisfy the claims of temporal princes, to s
ing bishop sees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, H
Lubec, and Osnaburg, which last goes alternately to
ria and Hanover, and is at present held by his
second son. Such of those sees as were archbish
sidered as duchies, and the bishoprics as principalit

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German
language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is
and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varie
in different provinces. Latin and French are the m
in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High D

The German Pater-noster is as follows: *Unser V
himmel, geheiliget werde dein name. Zukomme dei
geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser
heute. Und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergebe
Und fuehre uns nicht in versuchung. Sondern erlose
Den dein ist das reich, und die krafft, und die herr*
Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES. } No country has
variety of autho
and there is no where a more general taste for readi
protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault
of letters is an author; they multiply books without
of theses and disputations are annually published; f
graduate in their universities who has not publish
at least. In this country there are 36 universities, o
testant, 17 Roman-catholic, and two mixed: beside
colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools
many academies and societies for promoting the stud
sophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, sculp
&c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *Natu*
demy of Sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen
Leipsic, at Duisburg, at Giesen, and at Hamburg.
Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a
demy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan ac
to which we may add the Latin society at Iena. O

brated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbut-
ttingen, Weymar, and Leipsic.
Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in vari-
earning and science. They have written largely upon
anon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and
tributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvi-
s, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; and
ermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astrono-
vedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is
vriters on the law of nature and nations, and has also
rian. But at the end of the last century, and the begin-
nt, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects,
olved in disputes about systematic theology, that few
aid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite
language also, and the style of writing in German
the time of the Reformation was pure and original, be-
by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words;
ney were not understood by the people in general, were
an air of superiority to the writers, and therefore much
opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and
yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge vo-
ing them with numberless quotations from all sorts of
m all languages, was the true test of great erudition.
s, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were, in
regarded by other nations.
he year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Ger-
brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a
hy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author
Leipsic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II. king
oduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German
y instituting a literary society for polishing and restor-
the German language, and by promoting the study of
s. We may consider this as the epocha from which the
to write with elegance in their own language upon
s, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from
s and pedantry by which they had been characterised.
e, several young men in the university of Leipsic, and
Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical
ed for the general entertainment of persons of literary
these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors;
are held in Germany in high estimation.
preaching among the German divines also now under-
rable change. They began to translate the best English
mons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin,
d others. They improved by these models; and Mos-
, Zollikofer, and others, have published sermons which
t to any country; although they still retain too much of
or which German divines and commentators have been
red. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the
iers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much
y vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to
reason and good sense.
English periodical writings, such as the Spectator, Tat-
ian, being translated into the German language, excited
n among the writers of that country, and a numbe. of pe-

riodical papers appeared, of various merit. One
was published at Hamburg, under the title of "Th
Dr. Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was cu
that time chaplain to the British factory at Hambur
master of the German language. The late profess
of the most elegant of the German authors, and one
ed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of t
of writing is particularly adapted to touch the hear
timents of morality and piety. His fables and a
German verse, his letters, and his moral romances,
Germany, that even many of the ladies have the
His comedies are also very popular; though they
mental, and better adapted for the closet than for th
Haller, the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz
Gleim, Gerstenberger, Kleist, Klopstock, Ramler, Z
others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegk
Wiese, Schiller, and Kotzebue, have acquired fam
writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, im
among the Germans; though some of his pieces
ture, and too much confined to German customs, m
ters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by
tions. Gesner, whose Idylls and Death of Abel
into the English language, and favourably received
an English reader.
In chemistry and in medicine, the merit of the G
spicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kæs
bert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired f
sophical writings. Busching is an excellent geog
Masco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Sch
in historical works. But it cannot be denied th
their romances, are a century behind us. Most
of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dr
which perhaps is owing to education, to false deli
taste of knight-errantry which is still predominant
novel-writers.
In works relating to antiquity, and the arts k
cients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessi
those who are skilled in this branch of literatur
philosophical, and literary history, the names of
Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known an
Michaelis, and Walch are famous in sacred lit
Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Hav
have published some of the best editions of Greek a
It is an unfavourable circumstance for German
French language should be so fashionable in the Ge
of the German, and that so many of their princes
cided a preference. Frederic II. king of Prussi
Philosophical Transactions of his Royal Society
beginning of its institution, to be published in the
which, some of the Germans think, his majesty cas
reproach upon his native language.
With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have a
very well. Germany has produced some good p
sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to
inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto.

d, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The rally allowed to be the first inventors of great guns, as r, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has like- me excellent musicians,—Handel, Bach, Hasse, and Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the c.

S, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, ND PRIVATE; with occasional esti- EVENUES AND POPULATION. } This is a co- pious head in all countries, larly so in Germany, on account of the numerous in- it contains.

is accounted the capital of all his Prussian majesty's exhibits, perhaps, the most illustrious example of sud- that this age can boast of, yet during the Seven Years' d a place of no strength, and fell twice, almost without he hands of the Austrians, who, had it not been for the r generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always d from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled

he river Spree, and, besides the royal palace, has many ices: it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Cal- besides a catholic one. Its streets and squares are spa- in a very regular manner; but the houses, though neat finished, and ill furnished within, and very indifferently habitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beau- and the arsenal, which is handsomely built, in the form ntains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry ma- rlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foun- mber of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, cluding the garrison. In the same year, and according hor, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for ames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. In the number of inhabitants was 104,874, of whom 5381 nd 1162 Bohemians: and the garrison, reckoning their ounted to 29,540 souls, which may be added to the nhabitants. They have here manufactures of tapestry, lace, and mirrors.

e of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, ; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and ages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans hich, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and timating each rix-dollar at four shillings and six-pence, 50,000l. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the soil (which, if we are to believe Dr. Busching, diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be ast Indies and elsewhere, and the variety of splendid that the Saxon princes appear to have been the most patriotic of any in Germany.

elector of Saxony's capital, is remarkable for its fortifi- s, public buildings, churches, and charitable founda- utifully situated on both sides the Elbe, and is the school r statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to rors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign

commerce, carried on by means of the Elbe.
Dresden, by the latest accounts, amount 110,000
The city of Leipsic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles di
is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Plei
ants are said to amount to about 40,000. There
well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Betwee
the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid o
and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also
ditches: but the fortifications seem rather calculate
inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The str
modious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night
lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houses, and 19
different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c.
distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed
different sentiments in religion. Here is an univ
very considerable, with six churches for the Luther
established religion), one for the Calvinists, and a ch
those of the Romish church. The university-libra
26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here
the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volu
manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, ant
with many curiosities of art and nature. The exc
building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electo
river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable
about twelve hundred houses, among which there is
It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighb
lace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The do
torate of Hanover contain about seven hundred
people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty ma
villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, belon
to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inha
considerable trade by the Weser. The other town
electorate have trade and manufactures: but in ge
marked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by
Hanover family to the crown of Great-Britain. I
mention, on account of its relation to our royal fan
bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers We
chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over
nufacture known by the name of the duchy, and fo
of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenu
amounts to about 30,000l.

Breslau, the capital of Silesia, which formerly be
dom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine
of Christians and Jews are tolerated; but the mag
Since Silesia fell under the Prussian dominion, its
proved, being very inconsiderable before. The manu
which principally centre at Breslau, are numerous.
whole is, by some, said to bring his Prussian majes
sterling; but this sum seems to be exaggerated, if,
note write, it never brought in to the House of Aust
yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, so called to distinguish
the same name on the Oder, is situated in a healthf
lightful country on the river just mentioned, by whic

nguished by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhausen. these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, nto two; and both are computed to contain about three s. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, , or figure, consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn ches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the placed before the gates. Frankfort is the usual place of coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free ity. It is of a circular form, without any suburbs; but enerally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of tim- ; and covered with slate; though there are some hand- ructures, of a kind of red marble, that deserve the name the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Collenhof, the German-house, an august edifice, situated over the Maine, the Hesse Darmstadthof, the palace of la Tour, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauen- nborn. There are likewise three principal squares.

e capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence r, is supposed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble ity, and the princes of the House of Austria have omitted ould contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna con- ent university, a bank, which is in the management of tates, and a court of commerce, immediately subject to ncil. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries; and, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial rieslties. Among its rich convents, is one of the Scotch n honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots' gate, in of some notable exploit performed there by the troops . The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are about three hundred thousand; and the encouragement their sovereigns has rendered this city the rendez-vous of

, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. The city are generally of stone, five or six stories high, and They have three or four cellars under one another, with e in the middle of each arched roof, for the communica- nd from the lowermost of all there is a tube to the top, to m the street. The winds often blow so strong, that it is to walk the streets. A remarkable prerogative of the so- is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, d to whomsoever he thinks proper; and hence there is no any where lodging is so dear as at Vienna. An odd cus- here of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the the houses, which makes them all look like so many pri- houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproper- e magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public but the excessive imposts laid by the House of Austria upon odity in its dominions must always keep the manufacturing bjects poor.

TIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In describing the mineral and other springs, a great part of this

article, which is of itself very copious, has been
Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of cu
natural, antient and modern. The tun at Heidc
heads, and is generally full of the best Rheni
strangers are seldom suffered to retire sober. Vien
for here you see the greatest variety of inhabitants
any where, as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavon
Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, I
their proper habits. The imperial library at Vi
rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts.
80,000 volumes, among which are many valual
brew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic
antiquity of some of them is questionable, parti
ment in Greek, said to have been written 1500 y
ters, upon purple. Here are likewise many tho
and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collec
ties of art and nature. The vast Gothic palace
and above all, town-houses in Germany, are very
the beholder with their rude magnificence: m
same appearance, probably, as they had 400 yea
tifications generally consist of a brick wall, tren
and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and r
tural curiosities of Germany. There is said to be
burg, in Hartz-forest, of which no person has
though many have advanced into it for twenty mi
markable curiosity of that kind is near Hamelc
from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave,
which commemorates the loss of 130 children, w
lowed up in 1284. This fact, however, though
tested, has been disputed by some critics. Freq
of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repres
their proper habits; and of many stones which see
of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] German
in point of commerce, from its situation in the h
being intersected, as it were, with great rivers. Its
commerce, besides mines and minerals, are hem
cumin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety
pot herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France
exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horses,
cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn
cotton stuffs, toys, turnery-wares in wood, metals,
wool, timber both for ship-building and houses,
bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinn
copper, brass-wire, porcelain the finest upon earth,
mirrors, hogs' bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalts,
printers' ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis
the French protestants to settle in different parts of
finite service to the German manufactures. They
silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse linen and
thing necessary for wear, to great perfection. The p
in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have
pute.

COMPANIES.] The Asiatic company of Embden, esta-
derick II. king of Prussia, was, exclusive of the Hanseatic
ly commercial company in Germany: but no ships have
since the year 1760. The heavy taxes imposed on the
e been the cause of its total annihilation. In the great cities
very large and extensive partnerships subsist.

TION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almost every prince in Ger-
are about 300 of them) is arbitary with regard to the
in his own estates; but the whole of them form a great
governed by political laws, at the head of which is the
whose power in the collective body, or the diet, is not di-
executive: but even that gives him vast influence. The
ce of Germany is the diet, which is composed of the em-
his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of
The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the
inces; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

e was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but, after
elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and
cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Hen-
ef officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their
In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to
elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

ty of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries
the House of Austria, as being the most powerful of the
nces; but, by French management, upon the death of
grandfather by the mother's side, to the emperor Joseph
or of Bavaria, was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is
eart broken, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power
ror is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election;
on, who in his life time is chosen king of the Romans,
thout a new election, to the empire. He can confer titles and
nents upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he can levy
or make war or peace, without the consent of the diet.
consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his *quota*
money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps,
r or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the
forms the intricacy of the German constitution; for George
nd, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his *quota*
House of Austria, and also against the king of Prussia, while
ing for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for
dors in all Christian courts.

electors of the empire have each a particular office in the
urt, and they have the sole election of the emperor. They
:,

e archbishop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the em-
n Germany.

The archbishop of Triers, who is high chancellor of France
which, since the separation of France from the empire, is
inal.

he archbishop of Cologne, who is the same in Italy, a mere

, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

ior of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves
ts.

tor of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia), berlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great steward; and

The elector of Hanover (king of Great-Britain), of arch-treasurer.

It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a vice of those members; and during the vacancy of the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdictio the northern, and the latter over the southern circl

The ecclesiastical princes are as absolute as the te several dominions. The chief of these, besides the electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of shops of Liege, Munster, Spire, Worms, Wurtzbur burg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Besides these, th ecclesiastical princes. Germany abounds with m besses, whose jurisdictions are likewise absolute, very considerable; and all of them are chosen by th The chief of the secular princes are the landgrave of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, Wurtemburg, Mecklen the marquisses of Baden and Culmbach, with the Anhault, Furstenburg, and many others, who have all sovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities reign states; those which are imperial, or compose p the imperial eagle in their arms; those which a which we have spoken in the Introduction, have and immunities, but they subsist no longer as a poli

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, whic by the name of the Aulic council, are the two supre mining the great causes of the empire, arising bet members. The imperial council consists of fifty The president, and four of them, are appointed by each of the electors chooses one, and the other pri rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but Spire: and causes may be brought before it by a council was originally no better than a revenue cou of the House of Austria. As that family's power i diction of the Aulic council was extended upon the perial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number o of whom six are protestants, besides other officers; fact, is master of the court. These courts follow the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacif and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine ci to take care of the peace and order of the circle. commonly as follow: for Westphalia, the bishop of Nuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanov For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the archbishop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the e bishop of Worms. For Franconia, the bishop of Ba of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wurtemburg stance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archb and for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperi

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the and sentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerog

to a particular prince or princess, whose troops live at
n the estates of the delinquent, and he is obliged to
penses.

an of the Germanic body is a study of no small difficulty.
bly invented the several checks upon the imperial
it is certain that the House of Austria has more than
the liberties of the empire, and that they have been
. The House of Austria, indeed, met with a powerful
the House of Brandenburg, in consequence of the ac-
es of the king of Prussia. It may here be proper to
er of the meaning of a term which frequently appears
history,—that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no
anction made by the emperor Charles VI. for preserving
of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next
e last possessor, whether male or female. This provi-
en disputed by other branches of the House of Austria,
occasionally supported by France from political views,
gmatic sanction is strongly guarantied by almost all the
pe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late
attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the
e emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has
peatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

erritories of the German princes are so large as to be
roys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are
thout redress when they suffer any grievance; as they
the general diet, or great council of the empire, for re-
cts of the petty princes in Germany are generally the
for these princes affecting the grandeur and splendor of
tal, in the number and appearance of their officers and
eir palaces, gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands
, dress, and furniture, are obliged to support all this
parade at the expense of their vassals and dependants.
the burghers and peasants of Germany, the former in
joy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, as in
bia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or
certain services to their superiors, and pay the taxes;
e marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Lusatia, Mo-
, Austria, &c. their condition is various, indeed, but uni-
ervile.

] The only revenue falling under this head is that of
who, as such, has an annual income of about 5000 or
arising from some inconsiderable fiefs, in the Black
ustrian revenues are immense, and are thought to amount
sterling, in Germany and Italy, a sum that goes far in
. Frederic-William I. of Prussia, whose revenues were
ensive as those of his son, Frederic II. the uncle of the
usia, though he maintained a large army, was so good an
at he left 700,000l. sterling in his coffers; and Silesia
ove half a million sterling annually. From the magni-
of the German courts, a stranger is apt to conceive very
the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the scar-
in that country, and, consequently, the low price of pro-
nufactures.

STRENGTH.] During the two last wars, very little regard
rrying them on, to the ancient German constitutions; the

whole management being engrossed by the head of t
The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matric
gister, which, among other matters, contains the ass
money, which every prince and state, who are mer
is to advance when the army of the empire takes th
butions in money are called Roman months, on acc
assessments, paid to the emperors when they visited
ments, however, are subject to great mutability.
to say, that, upon a moderate computation, the s
empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, an
74,500, in all 453,500; of those the emperor, as
of Austria, is supposed to furnish 90,000.

| | |
|---|---|
| The elector of Mentz may maintain | |
| The elector of Triers | |
| The elector of Cologne | |
| The bishop of Munster | |
| The bishop of Liege | |
| The archbishop of Saltzburg | |
| The bishop of Wurtzburg | |
| The bishop of Bamberg | |
| The bishop of Paderborn | |
| The bishop of Osnaburg | |
| The abbot of Fulda | |
| The other bishoprics of the empire | |
| The abbeys and provostships of the empire | |
| Total of the ecclesiastical princes | |
| The emperor for Hungary | |
| for Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravi | |
| for Austria, and other dominions, | |
| The king of Prussia | |
| The elector of Saxony | |
| The elector Palatine | |
| The duke of Wurtemburg | |
| The landgrave of Hesse-Cassel | |
| The prince of Baden | |
| The elector of Hanover | |
| The duke of Holstein | |
| The duke of Mecklenburg | |
| The prince of Anhault | |
| The prince of Lauenburg | |
| The elector of Bavaria | |
| The dukes of Saxony | |
| The prince of Nassau | |
| The other princes and imperial towns | |
| The secular princes | |
| The ecclesiastical princes | |

By this computation, which is far from being ex
that the emperor and empire form the most powerfu
rope; and if the whole force was united, and pro
many would have nothing to fear from any of its an

t interests pursued by the several princes of Germany
r of the emperor of little consequence, except with re-
forces, which are indeed very formidable. The impe-
mputed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thousand;
nt war, the emperor has brought about the same num-
d.

OYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Germany pre-
ARS, AND ORDERS. } tends to be successor to the em-
, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a ta-
on all public occasions among the powers of Europe.
archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that House,
ction of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. In-
he titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the
he is vested as archduke. The arms of the empire are
ith two heads hovering with expanded wings in a field
ver the heads of the eagle is seen the Imperial crown.
f the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hun-
erusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant and Barr,
useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarter-
al bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and
dependent prince of any importance in Germany, claims
uting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are
unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany,
ings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece,
om the House of Burgundy. The empress dowager
662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female
e late empress-queen instituted the order of St. Theresa.
*of the Golden Fleece*" was instituted at Bruges, in Flan-
h of January, 1429, by Philip, duke of Burgundy, on the
rage with his third wife. It is supposed that he chose the
the chief of the staple manufactures of his country. It
d of thirty knights, including the sovereign, who were
ulers in the Low Countries; and it still continues to be
e most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At
re two branches of it; of the one the emperor is sove-
king of Spain of the other; all must prove their noble
e twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium*
." The "*Teutonic Order*" owed its origin to some reli-
in Jerusalem during the crusades, who assumed the title
knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the
rusalem." Conrade, duke of Swabia, invited them into
the year 1230; soon after they conquered Prussia for
d became one of the most powerful orders in Europe.
al quarrels, they afterwards lost their power and posses-
ert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand master of the order,
popery, abdicated the grand mastership, subdued Prus-
ed all the papists who would not follow his example.
now divided into two branches: the protestant branch,
use at Utrecht, has been noticed in our account of orders
lands;—that for papists has a house at Mergentheim, in
the members must take the oath of celibacy. The ensign
branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.
The institution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncer-
grave of Bareith is sovereign of it, and it is generally be-
tary officers. In the year 1690, John George, elector of

Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, disputes, established the "*Order of Sincerity*," a security hereafter of their amity. The knights bracelet of gold; on one side are the names of t this device, "*Amitié sincère*;" on the other side a joined together, and placed on two swords, wit crossed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais.*"

John George, duke of Saxe Weissenfels, insti *the Noble Passion*," in the year 1704, of which t reign. Each knight of the order is to contribut of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service the year 1709, Louisa-Elizabeth, widow of Philip, burg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," f by her father, the duke of Wurtemburg. A pri alone can be sovereign of it, and none but wome (birth and fortune not regarded) be received in it gaming, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of al of the order is a death's head enamelled white, sur pattée, black; above the cross pattée another cr jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edge the ribband these words, "*Memento mori*," worn

The great order of Wurtemburg is that "*of t* in the year 1702 by the then duke, and improve On the left side of the coat is a silver star embr figure as the badge, in the middle of a green ci "*Amicitiæ Virtutisque Fœdus.*" The festival of Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revive *Hubert*," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and G a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 14 have either military employments or pensions. The burg, in 1701, instituted the "*Order of St. Rupe* founder and patron of the see he held, and as the try. As the archbishop is the richest and most po varia, next to the elector, his order is in good estee Albert, elector of Bavaria, instituted the "*Ord Defender of the Immaculate Conception*," the knight to prove their nobility by father and mother for fi

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," instituted by of Hesse Cassel, is equally a military and civil or ferred on general officers. The present landgrave h military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is points, enamelled white, and in the centre this mo *Fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pe bard edged with silver.

History.] The manners of the ancient Germa by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, t They were a brave and independent race of men, a guished by their love of liberty and arms. They the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decli arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full try was divided into a number of principalities, other, though occasionally connected by a military themselves against such enemies as threatened the At length, the Roman power, supported by art a

rt of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a
en the Roman empire was shattered by the northern
rmany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480,
ible part of it long remained in subjection to earls and
hat nation. In this situation Germany continued, not-
he efforts of particular chieftains or princes to reduce
ection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then
harlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses
start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military
wards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire.
of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until
Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different
ng their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian
d Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since
many has ever been considered as an elective monarchy.
rent families, according to the prevalence of their interest
mounted the throne. Of these the most considerable,
ran line acquired the Imperial power, were the Houses of
onia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain
emarkable than the contests between them and the popes.
the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the fac-
uelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached
d the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence
, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The em-
e often at war with the Turks, and sometimes the Ger-
s happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another
ession. But what more deserves the attention of a judi-
an all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the pro-
ment in Germany, which was in some measure opposite
other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raised by
fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed
ection; and those now distinguished by the name of elec-
ecular or legal influence in appointing a successor to the
e; they were only the officers of the king's household,
his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse,
ers, as they lived near the king's person, and, like all
had independent territories belonging to them, they in-
nfluence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of
axony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing
Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity
lords, who were all originally allodial or independent ba-
inished by the power of the king, as in France, and by
of the people, as in Great Britain—in Germany, on the
he power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the
remacy, and of the people's jurisdiction. Otho I. having,
2, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a de-
clergy, that he and his successors should have the power
the pope, and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V.
icked prince, in the year 1122, surrendered up the right
and other powers, to the disgrace of the Imperial dignity;
edict XII. refusing absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in
declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of

ays, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the
, till Charles IV. who was chosen emperor in 1347, and made that
tion for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

suffrages of the electoral college should confer
consent of the pope, and that he had no superio
nor any right to reject or to approve of elections
archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, an
continued in the male line of that family for thr
of his successors, Maximilian, married the heir
Burgundy, whereby Burgundy and the seventeen
therlands were annexed to the House of Austri
son of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom o
mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519.
and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and
the reformation of religion in several parts of G
ever, was not confirmed by public authority till
treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdina
Charles V. was continually disturbed by his w
princes, and the French king, Francis I. Thoug
ginning of his reign, his good fortune towards th
gan to forsake him; which, with other reasons,
tion of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558 succ
proved a moderate prince with regard to religion.
to procure his son Maximilian to be declared ki
his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his las
if either his own male issue, or that of his brothe
his Austrian estates should revert to his second d
the elector of Bavaria, and her issue.

This destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the
by the House of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanctio
empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of he
The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with
and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in
was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was invo
Hungarians, and in differences with his brother M
ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. To
empire, Matthias, under whom the reformers, wh
of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divide
as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The a
at last reconciled them; but the Bohemians rev
Imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague,
ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias
terminated both parties; but they formed a con
*Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a

Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his c
but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic
the most powerful protestant prince in Germany,
Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incr
cept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely
of Bavaria and the Imperial generals, at the battl
was also deprived of his own electorate, the be
given to the duke of Bavaria. The protestant p
however, had among them at this time many abl
were at the head of armies, and continued the war
and intrepidity; among them were the margrave
Christian duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield
the best generals in the age. Christian IV. king of

d Richelieu, the French minister, did not wish to see the
stria aggrandised. The emperor, on the other hand, had
erals; and Christian having put himself at the head of the
gue, was defeated by Tilly, an Imperialist of great reputa-
Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over
ts, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of
celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the
victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of
1632, have already been related. But the protestant cause
with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the
e Wiemar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the
ser, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace
ed among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year
h forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.
II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand
ed in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a
niable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great
ntend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the
was a loser in his war with both. France took from him
many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks
taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobi-
Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adven-
, about the year 1697; and, being one of the Imperial
ve the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary;
eace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the
The empire, however, could not have withstood the power
had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III.
, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the
er, the consequences of which have been already described.
ians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated
ding tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms under the pro-
he Porte, when that prince died, in 1705.
ucceeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne
to the ban of the empire; but being very ill served by
is of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly
heir affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The
rlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had
success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was sus-
design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evi-
conduct, that he expected England should take the princi-
the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The
re disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in
re he had reduced the Hungarians; and, leaving no male
ucceeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the
ndeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition
uke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.
e peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at first made
f he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now
forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to con-
te with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppose the
the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from
ene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of
rance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which
hands of the Imperialists; and the following year the peace of
, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was

continually employed in making arrangements
serving his hereditary dominions in Italy a
Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolve
over; an event which gave him a very decisiv
the connections of George I. and II. with th
sensible of this, and carried matters with so h
the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued bet
and so unsteady was the system of affairs all ov
that the capital powers often changed their old
new ones, contrary to their interest. Without e
it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Han
ment, was the main object of the British court;
was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction,
ter, the late empress-queen, he having no male
sions upon those great points restored a good
George II. and the emperor Charles; and the
prevailed upon by the prospect of gaining the t
quished the claims he had upon the Austrian su

The emperor, after this, had very ill success
with the Turks, which he had undertaken chief
for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to
of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, a
supply his place. The system of France, unde
pened at that time to be pacific, and she obta
Turks, a better peace than he had reason to exp
the German and other European powers, had,
his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in
Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accessio
trian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave than all he h
must have been overthrown had it not been for
II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all
of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and c
he said had been wrongfully dismembered from
of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up clai
ble with the pragmatic sanction; and in this
France: though all those powers had solemnly g
perial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was
of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII.
French poured their armies into Bohemia, wh
and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight
to cede to that prince the most valuable part of t
a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, her sufferings, and th
which she bore them, touched the hearts of
whose protection she threw herself and her infant
had always been remarkable for their disaffection t
they declared unanimously in her favour. Her ge
out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of a
rian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 174
this time distressed on the Imperial throne, and dri
dominions, as had been his ancestor, in queen A
with France, and would have given the queen o
own terms; but she haughtily and impoliticly re
tion, though advised to it by his Britannic majest

his obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to in-
under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but
Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom,
rted by the French: upon which he abandoned all his
etired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of
ngary, who came to an accommodation with the em-
ght recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in
the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then
Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after sur-
difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of

ss of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the
And the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the ope-
press-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter beat
uther, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven
ut of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen
is Britannic majesty thought proper to guaranty to him
Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian ma-
that he had discovered a secret convention which had
o between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and
nd, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions,
em among themselves. Upon this he suddenly attacked
nd, drove him out of Saxony, defeated his trooqs, and
of Dresden, which he held till a treaty was made under
f his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia
he duke of Lorraine, now become great duke of Tuscany.
The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the
at to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was
treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty,
e more guarantied to the king of Prussia. It was not long
narch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the em-
's views falling in with those of the empress-queen and the
, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new
h war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The
declared against the admission of the Russians into Ger-
Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those
all former differences between these monarchs were for-
British Parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of
is Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war,
hich were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.
n majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the im-
drown, at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay
s, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna; and the
ny again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this,
ajesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French
quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into
conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is scarcely
d in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with in-
pidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under
, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on
Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a
ous artillery; but, just as he was beginning to imagine that
e invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian
, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach.
e of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists,

under count Daun, were formed into excellent tro
beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took B
many other great advantages. The Russians, after
gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the
prising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian ma
difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories.
the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made up
night time, by count Daun at Hochkirchen, had ne
his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirabl
He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for th
and it has been observed, that few periods of history
reflection as this campaign did: six sieges were raise
time: that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Le
Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empi
by count Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and T
Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same
between the French who were driven out of Hanov
or their allies, must be omitted on account of the bre
observed in this compendium. The operations on be
importance to history, because nothing was done
though the war was extremely burdensome and bloo
Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to hi
and his allies, who were now daily threatened with
pire. The Russians had taken possession of the king
laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian m
Till then he had entertained too mean an opinion o
he soon found them by far the most formidable enem
advanced under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,00
this distress he acted with a courage and resolution
despair; but was, at last, totally defeated by the Ru
of 20,000 of his best men, in a battle near Frankfort.
tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to an
all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had l
October, 1756, the brave marshal Keith, and forty bn
those who were wounded and made prisoners. At l
perial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fo
had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austr
into Silesia. None but his Prussian majesty would h
tinuing the war under such repeated losses; but ever
seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not, perhaps, v
for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near
the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of
They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants unde
butions; but towards the end of the campaign he
rialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun
was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ev
but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was att
consequences in his favour. New re-inforcements
day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russian
nitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have comple
his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia
1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October
The deaths of those illustrious personages were foll
sequences. The British ministry of George III. were

, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His
sty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his
empress-queen, probably, would have completed his de-
it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German
hilate the House of Brandenburg. At first the empress-
all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be
rmies. The visible unwillingness of her generals to execute
d the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last
her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by
Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763, which again secured to
ajesty the possession of Silesia.
eath of the emperor, her husband, in 1765, her son Joseph,
crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in
Soon after his accession he discovered great activity and
e joined in the dismemberment of Poland with Russia and
paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to
principal courts of Italy; and had a personal interview
ian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from
ced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succes-
ctorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion
njust; but, in the support of them, while the contest
e emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast
brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of
nce, and an accommodation at length took place. The
wards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the
n this he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to
happiness of his subjects, granted a most liberal religious to-
suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being
s, and even pernicious to society; and in 1785, by an edict,
remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees
s at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu.
ished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and re-
of the grievances under which the peasants and common
red. He was a prince that mixed with his subjects with an
bility that are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He
versation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cul-
dge.
pold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph
d the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and
es. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which
and beneficent, showed that he aspired to truer reputation
acquired by the mere splendors of royalty. One of the
ungary having refused his licence to a a catholic subject to
estant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but
m afterwards upon concession, and desired the bishop to
rethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, else no
d be shewn.
h revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of
conference was held at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the
ia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of at-
ce was proposed and discussed. Leopold for some time
esolute, but at last seemed to be resolved on war, when he
uritic fever, on the first of March, 1792, after an illness of

Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of

July following, He embraced the politics of h barked with zeal in the political crusade against l consequences of this war to the House of Austri by which it was for a short time intermitted, its the recent successes of the imperial arms, have count of the affairs of France.

Francis Joseph-Charles, emperor of Germa Tuscany. He was born Feb. 3, 1768; married, J princess of Wurtemburg, who died 1790. He ma Maria Theresa, of Naples, his cousin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, lat 1792, he succeeded to the crown of Hungary a 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the ter, Maria-Theresa, born Dec. 12, 1791.

The late emperor Peter-Leopold had 15 childr is the present emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joseph, born May 5, 1769; marrie ria-Amelia of Naples.

Charles-Lewis, born Sept. 3, 1771.

Alexander-Leopold-Joseph, born Aug. 1, 177

Maximilian, born Dec. 23, 1774; died May

Joseph-Antony, born May 9, 1776.

Antony-Victor, born Aug. 31, 1779.

A son, born Jan. 20, 1782.

Regnier-Jerom, born Sept. 30, 1783.

Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta Jane, born Jan. 14

Maria, born Jan. 14, 1767; married Oct. 18, 1 to the elector of Saxony.

Mary-Ann-Ferdinanda Josepha, born April 21

Mary-Clementina Josepha, born April 24, 1 1790, Francis-Januarius, prince-royal of Naples.

Maria-Josepha-Theresa, born Oct. 15, 1780.

A princess, born Oct. 22, 1784.

Maria-Antoinetta, born and died 1786.

The late emperor has, living, two sisters, and o

Those *married* are,

Maria-Christiana-Josepha, born May 13, 174 1760, to prince Albert of Saxony.

Maria-Amelia-Josepha, born Feb. 26, 1746; ma duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.

Ferdinand-Charles-Antoine, born June 1, 175 princess Maria-Beatrice of Modena, and has issue.

Mary-Caroline-Louisa, born Aug. 13, 1752; ma to the king of the Two Sicilies.

ELECTORS.] Three ecclesiastical electors, cal nesses; and five secular ones, Most Serene Electo

ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.] 1. Frederic-Ch of Erthal, archbishop and elector of Ments, born

2. Prince Clement of Saxony (son of Augustus I born Sept. 28, 1739; archbishop and elector of Tre also bishop of Treisingen and Augsburg, by dispensa

3. Maximilian Francis, brother to the late emper the Teutonic order, archbishop and elector of Colo Munster, born Dec. 8, 1756.

ELECTORS.] 1. Francis-Joseph-Charles, emperor of
g of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born Feb. 3, 1768.
Augustus IV. elector and Duke of Saxony, born Dec. 23,
d, Jan. 17, 1769, to the princess Amelia-Augusta of

Frederic, elector and Marquis of Brandenburg.
es of Deux Ponts, elector Palatine, &c.
III. king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.
ES.] Ernest Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princess
ales, born Jan. 30, 1745; married, May 21, 1769, to
tte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,
born 27, 1770.
Leopold, born Nov. 24, 1772.
ther Augustus, born Aug. 14, 1747.
SWIG.] The house of Mecklenburg is divided into two
.
nburg Schwerin.—Frederic, reigning duke, born Nov. 9,
ed, in 1746, Louisa-Frederica, daughter of Frederic-Louis,
ince of Wurtemburg Stutgard, born Feb. 3, 1722; they
—Issue of the late prince Louis, by the princess Char-
of Saxe-Coburg-Staelfield.
rancis, born Dec. 10, 1757.
Ulrica-Sophia, sister to the reigning duke, born July 1,
ess of the convent of Ruhne.
nburg Strelitz.—Adolphus Frederic, reigning duke (knight
), born May 5, 1738.—His brothers and sisters are,
Louis-Frederic, a lieut.-general in the Hanoverian service,
, 1741; married, Sept. 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotte-
ese Darmstadt, by whom he had issue,
a Georgina-Louisa-Frederica, born Nov. 17, 1769.
a Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.
Gotleb-Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian service,
r of Zell, born Aug. 7, 1742.
ana Sophia-Albertina, born Dec. 6, 1735.
tte, queen consort of Great-Britain, born May 19, 1744;
t. 8, 1761; crowned Sept. 22, 1761.

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## NGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Lat. 52° 40′—to 55° 50′ N.
Long. 10° 00′—to 23° 23′ E.

42,144 square miles, with 67 inhabitants in each.—The
nions 60,000 square miles, with 104 inhabitants to each.

ON, BOUNDARIES, } THIS country is bounded to the
D EXTENT. } North, by part of Samogitia; to
y Poland Proper, and Masovia; to the East, by part of Li-
a; to the West, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest
out 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. } The name of P
rived from the
inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the w
and the soil fruitful in corn and other commoditi
of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are h
game, wild bears and foxes. Its rivers and lakes
fish; and amber, which is thought to be formed
with vitriol, is found on its coasts towards the Bal
nish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch,
pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage
the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Me
Passarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. }
sent century, has become a most respectable power
Europe, it may be proper to deviate from the usu
fore the reader's eye the whole of his Prussian
which lie scattered in other divisions of Germany,
and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all
in the following table:

| Protestants. Countries' Names. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Poland | Ducal Prussia ... | 9950 | 160 | 112 | Königs |
| | Royal Prussia ... | 6400 | 118 | 104 | Elbing |
| Up. Saxony | Brandenburg ... | 10,910 | 215 | 110 | Berlin |
| | Pomerania ..... | 4820 | 150 | 63 | Camin |
| | Swed. Pomerania | 2991 | 90 | 48 | Stetin |
| Lo. Saxony | Magdeburg ... | 1535 | 63 | 50 | Magdeb |
| | Halberstadt ..... | 450 | 42 | 17 | Halberst |
| Bohemia | Glatz ..... | 550 | 38 | 23 | Glatz |
| | Silesia ..... | 10,000 | 196 | 92 | Breslaw |
| Westphalia | Minden ..... | 595 | 42 | 26 | Minden |
| | Ravensburg ..... | 525 | 38 | 34 | Ravensb |
| | Lingen ..... | 120 | 15 | 11 | Lingen |
| | Cleves ..... | 630 | 43 | 21 | Cleves |
| | Meurs ..... | 35 | 10 | 6 | Meurs |
| | Mark ..... | 980 | 52 | 43 | Hamm |
| | East Friesland ... | 690 | 46 | 32 | Embden |
| | Lippe ..... | 25 | 8 | 4 | Lipstadt |
| | Gulich ..... | 528 | 44 | 24 | Gulich |
| | Tecklenburg ... | 36 | 12 | 6 | Tecklen |
| Netherlands | Guelder ..... | 860 | 54 | 23 | Guelder |
| Switzerland | Neufchatel ..... | 320 | 32 | 20 | Neufcha |
| | Total ... | 52,450 | | | |

Besides a great part of Silesia, which Frederic II. under w
from Austria; availing himself also of the internal troubles
of no other right than that which a powerful army confers
upon Thorn, with the countries on the Vistula and the Neis
contiguous to his own dominions, close to the walls of Dan
may be traced in the map. To these must also be added th
land acquired by the final partition of that country.

We shall here confine ourselves to Prussia as
his Prussian majesty's other dominions fall unde
the countries where they lie.

its of this kingdom alone were, by Dr. Busching, com-
to 635,998 persons capable of bearing arms. Since
is computed that about 34,000 colonists have remov-
France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number
altzburgers. These emigrants have built 400 small
s, 86 seats, and 50 new churches; and have founded
ools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little

of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the other
Germany. The same may be said of their customs

SCHOOLS, } The religion of Prussia is very tolerant.
RSITIES. } The established religions are those of the
Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, antipædo-
most all other sects, are here tolerated. The country,
owns, abounds in schools. An university was founded
in 1544; but we know of no very remarkable learned
produced.

he kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and
artments; the former of which contains 280 parishes,
05.

the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river
ich it has seven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic.
r. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference,
000 houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This compu-
s a little exaggerated, because it supposes, at an average,
rsons in every house. Königsberg has ever made a con-
e in commerce and shipping, its river being navigable
which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752,
utors; and 373 floats of timber were, in the course of that
down the Pregel. This city, besides its college or univer-
tains 38 professors, has magnificent palaces, a town-
change; not to mention gardens and other embellish-
a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Frederics-
regular square.

ES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } See Germany.

AND MANUFACTURES.] The Prussian manufactures
iderable: they consist of glass, iron-work, paper, gun-
, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen,
and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of
mber, linseed, and hempseed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tal-
w; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year
mmoditites chiefly from Königsberg.

ION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Prussian majesty is
gh all his dominions, and he avails himself to the full of
he government of this kingdom is by a regency of four
state; viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave;
chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also
ncils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of coun-
; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the
sides these institutions, Frederic II. erected a board for
navigation.

.] His Prussian majesty, by means of the happy situation
its inland navigation, and judicious political regulations,

derives an amazing revenue from this country, wh
and a-half ago, was the seat of boors and barbari
amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually.
arise from his demesnes, his duties of customs an
sidies yearly granted by the several states; but t
known; though we may conclude it is very consi
mense charges of the Seven Years' war. The rev
draws from Silesia amounts annually to 5,854,6
after deducting the expenses of the military establish
there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix-dollars.
since the accession of Polish or Royal Prussia, must
exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and popula
ation was of vast importance, as it lay between
nions and his kingdom of Prussia. By this acqui
are compact, and his troops may march from Be
without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, c
consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troo
during the Seven Years' war that force was augmen
But this great military force, however it may aggra
importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent wit
people. The army is chiefly composed of provi
whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles
of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to th
ness of the divisions, have been originally raised,
cruits continue to be taken: and each particular
quartered, in time of peace, near the canton from w
drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant ma
liable to be taken in to the service except one, who
management of the farm. The rest wear badges fr
to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and
the service whenever they are called upon. But the
an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it,
a drain from population, and such a withdrawing
labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoure
save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recru
other countries. These foreign recruits remain
regiments in which they are placed; but the native
year some months of furlough, during which they
of their fathers or brothers, and work at the busine
any other way they please.

ARMS AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The r
are, argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, f
the imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent,
gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisa
To these are added the respective arms of the sever
to the Prussian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood: the "*Orde*
tuted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg,
distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to
of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, an
Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the "*Order of Generos*
wear a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, havi
motto, "*La Générosité*," pendent to a blue ribband
instituted the "*Order of the Black Eagle*," on the d

g, in the year 1700: the sovereign is always grand-master; r of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to ust also be admitted into the "*Order of Generosity*," pre- receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The rit" was instituted by the late king, in the year 1740, to nt of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction ion, or country: the king is sovereign, and the number imited.

The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, a like people, descended from the Sclavonians, refused to neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them , endeavoured to subject them to slavery. They made a gainst the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV. feated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, ll the time of the crusades, when the German knights of rder, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by e sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the e country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, habitants of Prussia were almost extirpated by the religious in the thirteenth century, after committing the most in- nities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vast d, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of rder and Casimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the oppressed people; by which it was agreed, that the part ulish Prussia should continue a free province, under the ion; and that the knights and the grand-master should ther part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. This rish wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuc- throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, mar- denburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a ce, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the Prussia (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia), but e of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and upon 's issue, to his brother and his male heirs. Thus ended ty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted near In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, de- ed the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and by ons of Welan and Bromberg, it was freed by John Casimir, and, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were de- endent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

estant religion had been introduced into this country by the lbert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that per- protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the ric William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of solemn assembly of the states, proclaimed January 18, 1701, er acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. n, Frederic II. in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of er, Frederic William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly n of strong natural abilities, and considerably increased the his country, but too often at the expense of humanity. At hich happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions e treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories,

and the more wonderful resources by which he become the admiration of the age. He improved as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, phi Some of the principal transactions of his reign he in our account of the history of Germany. In the ed a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no ki be practised in honour of his person, assigning act of humiliation was not due but to the Divini of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in blishing factories, settling colonies, relieving purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late king of Prussia, who succeeded his u made many salutary regulations for his subjects, of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of d

The exertions of Prussia against France, till t cluded between those two powers, on the 5th of already related in our account of France.

The conduct of Prussia with regard to Poland and it would apparently have been more for the have erected the latter as a formidable indep Russia and Austria, than to have exposed itsel increased power of Russia.

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Frederic-William II.* died at Berlin, of a d 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic-W

Frederic-William II. king of Prussia, and el born September 25, 1744; married, July 14, 17 zabeth-Christiana-Ulrica, of Brunswic Wolfenb 14, 1769, to Frederica-Louisa, of Hesse Darmst

Issue by the first marriage

Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catharine, born M September 29, 1791, to the duke of York, the se nic majesty.

Issue by the latter marriage

1. Frederic-William, the present king, *born* Au
2. Frederic-Louis-Charles, born August 3, 177
3. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born Novemb October 1, 1791, to the hereditary prince of Or
4. Frederic-Christian-Augustus, born May 1,
5. Another prince, born December 20, 1781.
6. Another prince, born July, 1783.

Queen dowager, Elizabeth-Christina, of Bru born November 8, 1715.

Brother and sister to the late k

1. Frederic-Charles-Henry, born December 30
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 175 1767, to the present prince of Orange.

* In enumerating the kings of Prussia, we have thought the method used in Prussia, and throughout Germany, wh tinguished from the *Frederic-Williams*: thus the uncle of t king, frequently here styled Frederic III. and Frederic IV. continent, Frederic II. and Frederic-William II. the father styled Frederic II. but Frederic-William I.

# HE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| les. | | Degrees. | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 78 } 22 } | between | 48 and 52 North latitude. | |
| | | 12 and 19 East longitude. | |

ES.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg on the North; by Poland and Hungary on the East; by avaria on the South; and by the Palatinate of Bavaria on merly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; a.

| | Chief Towns. | Miles. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ro- tly the us- | Prague, E. long. 14-20. N. lat. 50. | Length 162 | 12,060 |
| | Königsgratz, E. | Breadth 142 | |
| | Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. | | |
| | Egra, W. | | |
| ast, ject of | Breslaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. | Length 196 | 10,250 |
| | Glogau, N. | Breadth 92 | |
| | Crossen, N. | | |
| | Jagendorf, S. | | |
| | Troppau, S. subject to the House of Austria. | | |
| | Teschen, S. subject to the House of Austria. | | |
| en- ject e of | Olmutz, E. long. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. | Length 120 | 5,424 |
| | Brunn, middle. | Breadth 88 | |
| | Egra, S. W. | | |

AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought so whole- of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are he same.

NS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded ns, contains none of note or distinction: its woods are e chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldau, and Eger.

ND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of lver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre: its chief are linen, copper, iron, and glass.

ON, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, ONS, AND DIVERSIONS.] About 150 years ago, Bohemia was computed r 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at present they are thought 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and mble the Germans. There is among them no middle state every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the ph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the

imperial demesnes, from the stage of villanage in
long and so unjustly retained; and it will be hap
be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and the
longer to deprive their vassals of the rights of h
the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable e
they formerly distinguished themselves as the
civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness
the reformed religion into their country, when
any other; the many glorious defeats they gav
and their generous struggles for independency
considered as the causes of their decay, as no mo
by their despotic masters for breaking their sp
their internal jealousies and dissentions greatly
jection. Their customs and diversions are th

RELIGION.] Though popery is the establis
yet there are many protestants among the inhab
rated in the free exercise of their religion: an
have embraced a visionary unintelligible protest
name, which they have propagated by their z
veral parts of the globe. They have a meeti
obtained an act of parliament for a settlement

ARCHBISHOPRIC AND BISHOPRICS.] Pra
archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgra

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the I
the Sclavonian, but they generally speak Gern

UNIVERSITY.] The only university of Boh

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital
finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, a
bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the
its last seige, never could completely invest it.
to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular s
thought not to be proportioned to its capacious
to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 J
two churches and chapels, and forty cloisters.
trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants a
Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in je
many other towns, some of which are fortified:
markable for strength or manufactures. Olmutz
via; it is well fortified, and has manufactures
paper, and gun-powder. Breslau, the capital
ready described.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The f
of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; bu
the emperor is despotic. Their states are compose
gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sov
been fond of provoking them by ill usage, as they
towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequer
Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in
nor does it contribute any thing towards the for
empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. Wh
this mistake, is that the king of Bohemia is the
the empire, and their kings have been elected em
many years.

REVENUES. The revenues of Bohemia are

act from the states of the kingdom, when they are an-
d at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l.

rms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved,
ltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or.
The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes,
ors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them,
urped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Al-
na, received three crowns, Hungary, the empire, and

Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers,
were burnt at the council of Constance, though the em-
y had given them his protection. This occasioned an in-
hemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers
ws of the council-chamber; and the famous Ziska, as-
y of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in
nts, and drove the imperialists out of the kingdom.
the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperor to
possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to
perial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a protestant
n of the prince palatine, son-in-law to James I. of
misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven
y the emperor's generals, and being stripped of his other
rced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence.
f thirty years which desolated the whole empire, the
remained subject to the House of Austria.

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# HUNGARY,

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| } | between | 16-35 and 26 East long. | 36,060 |
| } | | 44-50 and 49-35 North lat. | |

87,575 square miles, with 57 inhabitants to each.

THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the House of Austria (for it formerly included Transylvania, ia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) land on the North; by Transylvania and Walachia nia South; and by Austria and Moravia West.
of Hungary is usually divided into Upper and Lower Hungary.

### HUNGARY NORTH OF THE DANUBE.

| | Chief Towns, |
|---|---|
| d on the Danube, | Tokay, N. E. |
| N. lat. 48-20, | Zotmar, N. E. |
| W. | Ungvar, N. E. |
| W. | Montgatz, N. E. |
| W. | Waradin, Great, E. |
| n middle. | Segedin, S. E. |
| | Agria, in the middle, |
| | Pest, on the Danube, opposite to Buda. |

## Lower HUNGARY, South of T

Chief Towns.

| | |
|---|---|
| Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40. | Altenburg, island o |
| Gran, on the Danube, above Buda. | Weissenbu |
| Comorra, on the Danube, in the island of Schut. | ated E. Platten |
| Raab, on the Danube, opposite to the island of Schut. | Kanisha, S |
| | Five chur Drave. |

To which may be added Temeswar, which has tinct from Hungary, because it was formerly g dent king; and it has several times been in posse the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorp of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temesw long, and sixty-seven broad, containing about divided into four districts, Csadat, Temeswar, Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon

Air, soil, and produce.] The air, and c of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to b its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marsh being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet country in the world can boast a richer soil th tends 300 miles, from Presburg to Belgrade, an esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, me buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kin trees, chesnuts, and wood: corn is in such plen sixth part of its price in England.

Rivers.] These are the Danube, Drave, Sa the Temes.

Water.] Hungary contains several lakes, the Carpathian mountains, of considerable exte fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnific the Turks when in possession of the country Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

Mountains.] The Carpathian mountains, from Poland on the north, are the chief in H detached mountains are found in the country. rally covered with wood, and on their sides gr the world.

Metals and minerals.] Hungary is r with both. It abounds not only with gold and plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpim socolla, and terra-sigillata. Before Hungary bec tive wars between Turks and Christians, or fe the House of Austria; those mines were furnishe workmen, and produced vast revenues to the na garian gold and silver employed mint-houses, no in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but greatly diminished in their value, their works be lished: some of them, however, still subsist, t of the natives.

LE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarka-
breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly es-
itary officers, so that great numbers of them are exported.
arkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Pres-
eral its other vegetable and animal productions are the
se of Germany and the neighbouring countries. The Hun-
however, particularly those of Tokay, are preferable to
ther country, at least in Europe.

ION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } It was late before the nor-
STOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } thern barbarians drove the
f Hungary; and some of the descendants of their legionary
to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking
the Turks obtained possession of Constantinople, Hungary
most populous and flourishing kingdoms in Europe: and if
Austria should give the proper encouragement to the in-
repair works, and clear their fens, it might become so
pulation of Hungary, exclusive of Transylvania, Sclavo-
atia, was estimated, in 1776, by the celebrated Busching, to
: and Mr. Windish, an Hungarian. in his Geography of
lished in 1780, says, "the population, according to a new
mation, is 3,170,000, excluding Transylvania, Sclavonia,
." But the committee appointed by the Diet of 1791 to
ings of this nature, "some of whose notes," says Mr.
ie intelligent traveller in this country, "I have had in my
e the population of Hungary in its greatest extent, but al-
g Transylvania, at about 8,000,000, which they add, is
square mile. In No. 61 of Mr. Slotzer's *Staats Anzeigen*,
led account, which makes the total population 7,417,415."
rians are a brave, generous, and hardy race of men; their
eculiar to themselves; and they pique themselves on being
m those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom
fidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur-
e-bodied coats girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle,
ntrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right-hand
s at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The
ir beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips.
arms are the broad sword, and a kind of pole-axe,
ire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those
nd their sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and
ened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are
the French and English ladies. Both men and women,
all the mine towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses,
the roads are most miserable hovels, and even those sel-
with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for
and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their
gout and fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air,
minant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are
leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other
ed in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling
either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants
like and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and
people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the
ry, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than be ty-
by the House of Austria, they often put themselves under
n of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late em-

press-queen, notwithstanding the provocation t
House, will be always remembered to their hon

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province l
the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,
country many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to
the ancient Egyptians. They are said to reser
tians in their features, in their propensity to m
of their manners and customs; and it is asser
dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many far
tions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of
of dung, are still in use among the female gypsi

RELIGION.] The established religion of the H
catholic, though the major part of the inhabit
Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise o

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] T
Presburg, Gran, and Colocza. The bishopric
Agria, Vesprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixe
venians, and Walachians, they have a variety
them is said to resemble the Hebrew. The bett
ranks speak German; and almost all, even
speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that t
be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities (if they
ed) of Firnan, Buba, Raab, and Caschaw, are
arts and sciences, who used generally to be J
therans and Calvinists, who are more numer
catholics in Hungary, go to the German and o

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The
this
bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Esseck,
and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuatio
in length, fortified with towers at certain distan
tant pass during the wars between the Turks and
of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile lo
Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distan
remains of a bridge erected by the Romans,
magnificent of any in the world. The baths
nothing to distinguish them from the like works

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities
in a mountain near Szelitze: the aperture of th
the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight br
passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching
has yet been discovered: as far as it is practica
found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twent
ful particulars are related of this cavern. Astonis
in Hungary, and some of its churches are of adm

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } The
ed
nificence; but many of the fortifications are stil
in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the
kept. The crown, in the year 1784, was remov
of the emperor Joseph II. But this measure gav
excited such violent discontents, that it was sent
where it was received with the most extravagant

d suburbs being illuminated. This crown was sent, in the
y pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was
at of the Greek emperors: it is of solid gold, weighing
al three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three sapphires,
ne large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight
es these stones, are the images of the apostles and pa-
e pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross,
rwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the cere-
coronation a bishop carries it before the king. From the
al the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renew-
reign of the empress-queen Maria-Theresa. The sceptre
of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which
n, is said to be the work of Gisele, spouse of St. Stephen,
y, embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified,
ner images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of
The sword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda,
capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnifi-
strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of
es on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise
, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already
the excellency of its wines.

CE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the
ce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief ma-
al exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

TION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the
n, and even called the late empress-queen, king Theresa.
ment preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal
y have a diet or parliament, which assembly consists of
es; the first composed of magnates, or the great officers
, princes, counts, barons, and archbishops; and the second
, prelates, and deputies from the chapters and each of the
counties, into which the kingdom is divided. These
er, form but one body, as their votes are taken together.
ubs being convened on all great national events, should
al times. Under Matthias Corvinus, and Ferdinand I. it
they should be annual; and under Leopold I. that they
nnial; which was confirmed by Charles VI. and is still
the constitutional period. But sovereigns and their mini-
sh to get rid of these incumbrances; and lately, from 1764
diet was held; though many important affairs had happen-
s period. It ought not to sit more than two months.
ise a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and
at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes
he British privy-council, but has a municipal jurisdiction,
burg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gespan-
lds our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an
al nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

ARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring into the field at any
0 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of
000; these are generally light-horse, and well known in mo-
by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the
se; and therefore the hussars stand up on their short stirrups
strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so
in war, that the greatest powers in Europe have troops that
the name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers

in their caps, according to the number of enemie killed: both horse and foot are an excellent mili suit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but troops in a pitched battle. The sovereign may s nobility to take the field and defend their co called an *insurrectio*, and from it the high clergy the frequent wars in which Hungary was former against the Turks, this service was rather a sever ber of combatants each brought into the field w estate. The archbishop of Gran, and the bis each two stands of colours, and under each stan archbishop of Colocza, and several bishops, a t fatal battle of Mohatch, seven bishops were left ral *insurrection* of this kind was summoned by t sent war; but the treaty of Campo Formio hav fore the troops so raised began to act, they retu

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable fo are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a of their former kings. More Greek and Roman covered in this country than perhaps in any oth

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary bears quarterly, barwise, argent and gules, of ei

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this co the third century, communicated their name t the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; th were followed by the Sclavi in the beginning of the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from t and took possession of the country. Hungary v blage of different states; and the first who assum Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chr the form of government was established, and th tive. About the year 1310, king Charles Robe and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmati ny other provinces; but many of those conques duced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powe tury, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant repulsed the Turks when they invaded Hungary of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raised M of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of H killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, empe battle proved almost fatal to Hungary: but the brother to the emperor Charles V. having marri he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he difficulty; and that kingdom has ever since bel Austria, though by its constitution its crown oug the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

# LVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

untries appear under one division, for several reasons, and
rly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their
undaries. The most authentic is as follows :—TRANSYL-
gs to the House of Austria, and is bounded on the North
thian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the East
and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the
per and Lower Hungary. It lies between twenty-two and
egrees of East longitude, and forty-five and forty-eight of
de. Its length is about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and
rly 14,400 square miles, surrounded on all sides by high
Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same
f Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but the
country, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its
s Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes
e ancient feudal system, being composed of many indepen-
ant princes, who are little more than nominally subject to
a. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks,
s, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions.
s is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though
me metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are
Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very
excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and
ity, as are Clausenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of go-
s at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council
Roman-catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or
, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the so-
whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly,
a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in
vances.

vania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long
the Roman arms before they could be subdued. It was over-
Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the
heir descendants retain the same military character. The po-
f the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians
into the field, as has been asserted, 30,000 troops, the whole
inhabitants must be considerable. At present, their military
duced to six regiments of 1,500 each; but it is well known that,
last two wars in which the House of Austria was engaged,
ylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bi-
and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves
e about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is
lished church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced
ity there about the year 1000; and it was afterwards governed
ngarian vaivod or viceroy. The various revolutions in their
nt prove their impatience under slavery; and though the
Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as
daronia, to the House of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what
call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think
nvade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned
s of the nobility, near 16,000 assembled, and committed great

| POLAND. | | Len. Miles. | Bre. Miles. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Protestants - - | Courland subject to Russia - | 174 | 80 | Mittaw |
| Papists - - - | Lithuania - - | 333 | 310 | Wilna |
| | Podolia - - - | 360 | 190 | Kamienie |
| | Volhinia - - - | 305 | 150 | Lucko |
| | Great Poland - | 208 | 180 | Gnesna |
| | Red Russia - - | 232 | 185 | Lemburg |
| | Little Poland - | 230 | 150 | Cracow |
| | Polesia - - - | 186 | 97 | Bressici |
| | Masovia - - - | 152 | 90 | WARSA |
| | Samogitia - - | 155 | 98 | Rasiem |
| | Prussia Royal, or Polish Prussia | 118 | 104 | Elbing |
| | Polachia - - - | 133 | 42 | Bielsk. |

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Prussia Royal, are styled
the protection of Poland, but were seized by the la

After the final dismemberment in 1793, Po
among the partitioning powers as follows:

Austria { Little Poland, Red Russia, A part of Podolia } Now Galicia

Prussia { Great Poland, Polish Prussia, A small part of Lithuania, Masovia, Polachia.

Russia { Samogitia, Remainder of Lithuania, Polesia, Volhinia, Podolia.

NAMES.] It is generally thought that Polan
Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word signifying a co
for which none was formerly more proper, on
woods, wild beasts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is such as ma
extensive but level a climate. In the north parts,
The Carpathian mountains, which separate Polan
covered with everlasting snow, which has been
midst of summer. Upon the whole, however, th
temperate, and far from being so unsettled, either
as might be supposed from so northerly a situation
insalubrious on account of the numerous woods

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is,
try, and the soil is fertile in corn, as appears from

n thence down the Vistula to Dantzic, and which are bought Dutch and other nations. The pastures of Poland, espe-olia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of silver, copper, d coals; Lithuania abounds in iron, ochre, black agate, es of copper and iron pyrites, and red and gray granite; e stones, and marine petrifactions. The interior parts of tin forests, which furnish timber in such great quantities ployed in house-building, instead of bricks, stones, and tiles. ds of fruits and herbs, and some grapes, are produced in are excellent when they meet with culture: but the wine ver comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds or pipes and earthen-ware. The water of many springs is alt. The virtues of a spring in the palatinate of Cracow, ases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful ervation of life; and it is reported that the neighbouring commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of spring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, it the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on without heating the water; and if neglected to be extin-ch it may easily be, it communicates itself, by subterrane-s, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it and about thirty-five years ago the flames are said to have ree years before they could be entirely extinguished.

The chief rivers of Poland are, the Vistula or Weysel, , Neiper or Boristhenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland is Gopto, mate of Byzesty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is those who wash in it of a swarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS. The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though some are peculiar to itself, particularly manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June ants sweep into sieves with the dew, and it serves for food, rious ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fist, supposed to be tion of the resinous pine.

sts of Warsovia or Masovia contain great numbers of uri, s, whose flesh the Poles powder, and esteem it an excellent rses, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of , are common in the Polish forests; and there is a species of s and asses, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best fur in ty; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in r northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The he Polish elk forms the most delicious part of their greatest lis body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; gh, the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have ob-st, upon dissecting an elk, there were found in his head some , with its brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation s attested, that, in the large woods and wildernesses of the s poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a t of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter-n its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with

the falling sickness, by which means it is frequently than it would be otherwise.

Poland produces a creature called bobac: it resem but seems to be of the beaver kind. They are note in the ground, which they enter in October, and do cept occasionally for food, till April: they have separ their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live twelve in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland co of birds peculiar to itself; only we are told that the green legs, and their flesh is reckoned to be unwhole abounds in birds; among those of prey are the eagle *remiz*, or little species of titmouse, is frequently found is remarkable for the wondrous structure of its pensi the shape of a long purse, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Sup

Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and that the Poles have no colonies, and sometimes have many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,0 to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation has not But since the partition and dismemberment of that k ber is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. Th by Russia are the largest; by Austria the most popul sia the most commercial.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appea plexion is fair, and their shapes are well proportioned honest, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, submissive to their husbands. Their mode of salute heads, and to strike their breasts with one of their stretch the other towards the ground; but when a com a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and wit the leg near to the heel of the person to whom h Their diversions are warlike and manly: vaulting, d the great horses, hunting, skating, bull and bear ba ally travel on horseback; a Polish gentleman will n throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that t the ground, without any bed or covering, in frost Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments a kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwe third, and the gate in the front. They content thei small beds; and if any lodge at their houses, they mu ding with them. When they sit down to dinner or their trumpets and other music playing, and a numbe wait on them at table, all serving with the most prof the nobles who are poor frequently find themselves u of serving those that are rich: but their patron usuall civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his off; and every one of them has his peasant boy to w tained by the master of the family. At an entertainm neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all t and not opened till the company return home. It is man to give his servants part of his meat, which he ea hind him, and to let him drink out of the same cup

s extraordinary, if it be considered that the servants are
equals. Bumpers are much in fashion, both here and in
will they easily excuse any person from pledging them. It
d the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and
the Polish nobility; and the reader must figure to himself
l that is fastidious, ceremonious, expensive, and showy in
any conception of their way of living. They carry the
attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule:
usual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach
a great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-
gentlewoman for her gouvernante, and a dwarf of each sex
r train; and if it be night, her coach is surrounded by a
of flambeaux.

are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and
e peasants are divided into two sorts—those of the crown,
elonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes,
arons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on
t the difference that arises from the public posts they en-
ll who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They
titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the
nation they can enjoy. They have many considerable pri-
indeed, the boasted Polish liberty was properly limited to
partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more gene-
cient custom and prescription. Under their ancient con-
ee the last partition of the country, they had a power of
over their tenants and vassals; paid no taxes; were sub-
but the king; might choose whom they would for their
ne but they and the burghers of some particular towns
se lands. In short, they were almost entirely independent,
y other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regu-
ut if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility.
rivileges make the Polish gentry powerful; many of them
ritories, with a despotic power over their tenants, whom
r subjects, and transfer or assign over with the lands, cattle,
. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could put his peasant
mpunity; and, when the latter had no children, considered
e heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir pre-
for the murder of a peasant; and enacted, that, in case
without issue, his next heir should inherit. But these and
ons proved ineffectual against the power and tyranny of
od were either abrogated or eluded. Some of them had
ive to thirty leagues in extent, and were also hereditary so-
ities, with which the king had no concern. One of their
mes possessed above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them
or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman was a secure
rsons who had committed any crime; for none might pre-
them from thence by force. They had their horse and
which were upon duty day and night before their palaces
anti-chambers, and marched before them when they went
ey made an extraordinary figure when they came to the
them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates
were often determined by the sword. When great men
law, the diet or other tribunals decided them; yet the ex-
e sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice
om was commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes

they would raise 6000 men of a side, plunder and
cities, and besiege castles and forts; for they thou
submit to the sentence of judges, without a fiel
peasants, they are born slaves, and have no ide
lord kills the peasant of another, he is not capitall
obliged to make reparation by another peasant eq
bleman who is desirous of cultivating a piece of
wooden house, in which he settles a peasant and
a cow, two horses, a certain number of geese, her
corn as is sufficient to maintain him the first yea
his own future subsistence and the advantage of h

The clergy have many immunities; they are
some instances, have their own courts of justice
law is practised. A bishop is entitled to all the p
was usually appointed by the king, and confirmed
terwards nominated by the king out of three can
permanent council. The archbishop of Gnes
burghers still enjoy some freedom and privileges;
burgomaster and council, regulate their internal
own criminal courts of justice.

The peasants are at the absolute disposal of their
acquisitions serve only to enrich him. They are
to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of ente
tion of life that might procure them freedom, with
their lords; and they are exposed to the dismal
effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of the
who oppress them with impunity; and, having
property in their hands, too often abuse it in the m
manner, their wives and daughters being expose
treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wre
Polish peasants, which is their insensibility. Born
ed from their infancy to hardships and severe lab
them scarcely entertain an idea of better circumsta
They regard their masters as a superior order of b
repine at their severe lot. Cheerful, and contented
they are ready upon every occasion to sacrifice the
milies for their master, especially if the latter ta
well. Most of them seem to think that a man can
while he has any thing to eat. There are some
sants, whose ancestors were indulged, on settling
of the German laws, who enjoyed several privilege
generality of the Polish peasants: their villages
possess more cattle, pay their quit-rents better, and
in their persons. We have been the more circum
the manners and present state of the Poles, as the
blance, in many particulars, to those of Europe
feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants a
carried to a much greater height. Lately, indeed
lightened understandings have ventured to give h
The first who granted this freedom was Zemoiski,
cellor, who, in 1760, enfranchised six villages in t
sovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The eve
ject to be no less judicious than humane—friend
interests, as well as the happiness of the peasants;
the districts in which the new arrangement has be

the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew king of Poland, likewiſe enfranchiſed four villages near id not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but con- n direct their affairs. So that better times in that diſtreſſed y be expected.

was aboliſhed in Poland, in 1770, by an edict of the diet, uence of the king. Atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, &c. d by beheading or hanging: leſſer delinquencies by whipping, nt, and hard labour: the nobles never ſuffer any corporeal but are liable only to impriſonment and death.

in this country are long ſtables built with boards, and co- ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at ut none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ngers generally chooſe rather to lodge among the horſes. re obliged to carry proviſion with them; and when foreigners ly, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith pro- with neceſſaries.

The dreſs of the Poles is rather ſingular. They ſhave their ng only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks ar large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and a ſaſh, but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſt- ir breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without riſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. In- es, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a utlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, er all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, the ſkins of tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have f clothes all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from . Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we wledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majeſtic. of England, thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into nd, after his reſtoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for gement of the Engliſh broad-cloth; but diſcontinued it connections with the French.

it of the women very much reſembles that of the men; a aiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the s to guard the ſole of their feet. The women have a watch- r their daughters; and, in the diſtrict of Samogitia particu- them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where nd what they are doing.

us.] The number of proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when ined to the Greek church, the whole are called DISSIDENTS. me time the Poliſh nobility and the bulk of the nation are of the Roman-catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, con- 1660, tolerated the diſſidents, and was guarantied by the

principal powers in Europe; but was so disregard
in the year 1724, they made a public massacre
Thorn. Numerous provisions were made for
protestants, who were persecuted, when Jews,
every kind have been tolerated and encouraged.
Poland are, by some writers, said to be 576,
besides 246 seminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys
sessed of a very large proportion of the lands and
dom; but in general are illiterate bigots, and th
the most profligate of mankind, without apprehe
their order, or dreading the censure of their
equal indulgence. The popish clergy have had gre
at different periods, notwithstanding the treaties a
have been made in favour of the protestants and
Greek church. Indeed it has been chiefly owing
conduct of the popish clergy that the peasants in
duced to such a state of wretched slavery.

The principles of Socinianism made a very earl
gress in Poland. A translation of the Bible into t
published in 1572; and two years after, under th
persons, the catechism, or confession, of the Un
at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socin
to the extensive propagation of his opinions; but
in Poland have been very numerous, they have
greatly persecuted. However, it was lately resolve
and partitioning powers, that all dissidents sh
the free exercise of their religion, though to com
diet, the senate, and the permanent council. The
but without bells; also schools and seminaries o
capable of sitting in the inferior courts of justi
communion are admitted as assessors in the tribuna
religion.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Pola
bishopries; Gnesna and Lemburg. The archbish
being primate, is always a cardinal. The other b
Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Polish language is a dialect
both harsh and unharmonious, on account of the va
it employs. The Lithuanians and Livonians hav
corrupted Latin words: but the Russian and Germ
flood in the provinces bordering on those countries

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though
restorer of the true astronomical system, Vossius, a
men, were natives of Poland, yet many circum
are far from being favourable to learning. Latin
correctly, by the common people in some province
which the nobility, who place their chief import
of their rank, have ever shown for learning; the
people; and the universal superstition among all
wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the lib
majesty, still continue to retard, the progress of le
However, of late, a taste for science has spread itself
and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Poland
Wilna, and Posna or Posen. The first consists o

rviſorſhip of fourteen grammar ſchools diſperſed through
he number of ſtudents, in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna
he ſuperintendance of the Jeſuits; but after their ſuppreſſion
ablished a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors,
heir ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna was rather a Jeſuits'
an univerſity.

ITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous o Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their peſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed d other wild beaſts; otherwiſe it is difficult to account for ence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours: d that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained f ſpeech.

mines in Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred , at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and Out of theſe are dug four different kinds of ſalts; one ex- d, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, ; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. r kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; e of them is a ſtream of ſalt water, and on the other one of e revenue ariſing from theſe, and other ſalt mines, is very e, and formed part of the royal revenue before ſeized by e annual average profit of thoſe of Wiolitzka, eight miles w, was about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Itza, miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, excellently adapted to the potter's uſe, and ſupply all Poland en-ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them inces, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and The artificial rarities of Poland are but few, the chief being ilver, and enamelled veſſels preſented by the kings and prelates , and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of It was the royal reſidence, and contains many magnificent d other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is now Pruſſia, having been allotted to that power by the laſt parti- is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants; but a great number pers. The ſtreets are ſpacious, but ill paved, and the greateſt houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as does every is unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame d of Cracow, the ancient capital; for we are told, that notwith- it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt mines, and is ſaid to ty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The is in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and, with the ſub- urbs, covers a vaſt ſpace of ground; but both together ſcarcely con- tain 30 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened d and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification.

Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal
a large and ſtraggling place, containing ruine
and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabita
Jews, and 3000 employed in new manufactures
cotton, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the
wiſe eſtabliſhed in this place an academy of
which ten ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and
were all taught and maintained at his own expen

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and
many accounts, particularly for being formerly
ſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-t
the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, a
populous city: its houſes generally are five ſto
its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It ha
ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although
paſt its meridian glory, which was probably a
preſident De Thou wrote his much eſteemed
which, under the year 1607, he ſo highly cele
grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall
forty miles round it, which were under the pr
the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and
bitants, are Lutherans, although the Romaniſts
tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſh
and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been c
200,000; but Dr. Buſching tells us, that, in t
but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numero
conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, of whi
the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh
Viſtula chiefly laden with corn for its mate
that grain is diſtributed to many foreign n
Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſto
other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it
cords, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic wa
and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſom

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often cha
have ſometimes been under the protection of
but generally have ſhown a great predilection fo
public of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival
abridge them in their immunities, which exte
of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortifie
large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſi
ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 17
covered a remarkable attachment and fidelity
of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſ
but even in poſſeſſion of the city. The reaſo
and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil
ferent from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is becau
dure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, the
the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelv
vileges. This city, as well as that of Thorn
king of Pruſſia (Frederic II.) from thoſe claim
neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding whic
proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to
of their having been formerly part of Poliſh
ceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port duties bel
erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where

duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of that no perſon could go in or out of the town without be- in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the tzic received from the king of Pruſſia, though few cities cuited which have been comprehended in ſo many general ar treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo fre- ed, and guarantied by ſo many great powers, and by and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by de- Varſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September; by now acceded to by the citizens, the trade of the city was to to its former ſtability. Notwithſtanding this, however, in 93, the Pruſſian troops took poſſeſſion of Dantzic; the bur- d council of the city having, on the ſecond of April, aſſembled -houſe, at the requeſt of the late king of Pruſſia, by public ordered every perſon to follow his trade and buſineſs as main peaceably in his houſe, when the Pruſſians ſhould enter The city of Thorn was alſo treated by the king of Pruſſia in ſuſt and oppreſſive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now dominions.

CE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, maſts, planks, pitch and tar, ho- aſh, and tallow: its imports are foreign wines, cloths, ſtuffs, ed ſilks and cotton, fine linen, hard-ware, tin, copper, ſilver, glaſs-ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woollen cloths, ſilks, lets, lace, and hard-wares, are manufactured in the interior land and Lithuania; but commerce is chiefly confined to the ntzic, and the other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

ITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been on the old conſtitution of Poland. It differed little from ariſto- ce Poland has been called a kingdom and commonwealth, was head of the republic, and was elected by the nobility and he plains of Warſaw. They elected him on horſeback; and in ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority had no controul but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the mino- ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſued. Immediately after his e ſigned the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he en- the crown ſhould be elective—that his ſucceſſor ſhould ed during his life—that the diets ſhould be aſſembled every —that every noble or gentleman in the realm ſhould have he diet of election—and that, in caſe the king ſhould infringe nd privileges of the nation, his ſubjects ſhould be abſolved allegiance.—In fact, the king was no more than preſident ate, which was compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great offi- te, the palatines, and caſtellans. The palatines were the gover- he provinces, who held their offices for life. The caſtellans' time of peace were almoſt nominal; but when the military or ices were required, they were the lieutenants of the palatines, anded the troops of their ſeveral diſtricts.

ets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: the former met ry, and ſometimes three years; the latter was ſummoned by the

king, upon critical emergencies, and continued no l
night; but one diſſenting voice rendered all their d
tual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or ex
could ſit but ſix weeks, there were dietines, or provi
different diſtricts. The king, with the advice of the
ſent them letters, containing the heads of the buſine
treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each pa
the dietine, and chooſe nuncios or deputies to carry
the grand diet. The great diet conſiſted of the king,
ties from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland
70 for Pruſſia: it met twice at Warſaw, and once at
for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it
of their union with Poland; but ſince the preſent re
always ſummoned to Warſaw.

The partitioning powers, at the time of their fi
of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſti
ment, under pretence of amending it; confirming
endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarc
The executive power, which was entruſted to the
was veſted in the permanent council, compoſed o
and the equeſtrian order. The king, as preſident
three biſhops, nine lay ſenators, four from the miniſ
the marſhal, with 17 counſellors of the equeſtrian ord
the 18 ſenators, ſix from each province of Great Pol
and Lithuania. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws
was at laſt obtained. By the *firſt*, "that the crow
for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed
of a king's ſon and grandſon removed the proſpect o
vereignty, and entailed upon the kingdom all the evi
an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, that foreign
throne ſhall be excluded, and no perſon can be chos
excepting a native Pole, of noble origin, and poſſeſſing la
the Houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who mig
weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and
and liberties were ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the go
ſhall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican
*veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtria
firmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*,
cil ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power
in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto exclude
ſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be adm
prerogatives of the crown were ſtill farther diminiſhe
of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning p
own purpoſes, and give a large ſcope to influence a
part of the kingdom they had not yet ſeized.

REVENUES.] The income of the kings of Poland
to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chi
lands, the ſalt mines in the palatinate of Cracow, n
land, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſter
and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantz
rienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, of the governme
diſtrict of Niepoliomiez.—Of the revenues received
powers among whom it has been divided, nothing
affirmed with certainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The pride of the Poliſh

s appear in the field on horseback; and it is said that Poland with ease 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry; but it must ood that servants are included. As to the ordinary army of it consisted in 1778 of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in cantoned into crown-lands.—The Polish hussars are the finest heavy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pan- d both those bodies wear defensive armour of coats of mail and The rest of their cavalry are armed with muskets and heavy . Yet the Polish cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field, h the men are brave, and their horses excellent, they are strangers ipline. It is certain, notwithstanding, that the Poles may be excellent troops by discipline, and that, on various occasions, ly under John Sobieski, they made as great a figure in arms as e in Europe, and provoked the bulwark of Christendom against s.

ER.] The "*Order of the White Eagle*" was first instituted by s, in the year 1325, but revived by Augustus I. in the year attach to him some of the Polish nobles, who, he feared, were to Stanislaus, his competitor: it was conferred also on the czar Great, of Russia. The late king instituted the "*Order of St.* ," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is tos enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion, with e of St. Stanislaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pen- a red ribband edged with white. The star of the order is silver, he centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Stanislaus Augustus Rex), en- ith the motto "*Præmiando incitat.*"

ORY.] Poland of old was possessed by the Vandals, who were after- rds expelled by the Russ and Tartars. It was divided into many ies or principalities, each almost independent of another, though erally had some prince who was paramount over the rest. In the , the people, through the oppression of their petty chiefs, gave the command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, named was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 nd his reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole since been elected king is called a Piast. From this period till ion of Mieslaus II. 964, we have no very certain records of the f Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Prussia, and a, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno 1059. who in 1384 mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, ania; but, on his being elected king of Poland, he not only be- Christian, but was at pains to bring over his subjects to that reli- He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland; which ch influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the was preferred in his family until the male line became extinct in mund Augustus, in 1572, who admitted the reformed, with Greeks other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privi- before confined to the catholics. He gave such evident marks of to the protestant confession, that he was suspected of being in- to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors ed for the crown of Poland: these were, Henry duke of Anjou, r to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The interest prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a stipula-

tion to pay an annual penſion to the republic from the
but Henry had not been four months on the throne
brother died, and he returned privately to France,
governed by the name of Henry III. The party
Maximilian's intereſt endeavoured once more to revi
but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chooſe
reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori,
nia, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting w
from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to
the throne by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmun
the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced
military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new m
Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on wh
Ukraine, or frontiers of this kingdom. Upon his d
Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John, king of Swe
ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his
being expelled, as we have ſeen in the hiſtory of Swe
a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but
of the latter. Sigiſmund, being ſecured in the thron
to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but, after long w
in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a var
wars with the Turks and Swedes. At laſt a truce w
the mediation of France and England: but the Poles
that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Brauſt
gether with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623,
Uladiſlaus, his ſon, ſucceeded. This prince was ſu
the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swe
Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His r
unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the a
men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs
the war which followed was carried on againſt the
tious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, naturally
came deſperate; and on the ſucceſſion of John II. br
the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles i
and forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appe
courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as th
and their conduct was highly condemned by John;
diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them
hereby occaſioned continued, the Ruſſians came to
Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they,
Jenſko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, an
they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. N
of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little P
Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him ex
reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-
king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was jo
as well as the Poles; ſo that the Swedes, who were di
country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithu
time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced
who returned to Sweden with no more than a handf
was during this expedition that the Dutch and Engli
zic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the ſo
Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the l
which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. T

fter the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, yal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, it all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, ry of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

heſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew diſſatisfied with ons their king had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. he very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of re- ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdi- ated, and died abbot of St. Germain in France, employing er of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far deſpicable.

t remote deſcendants of the ancient kings ending in John any foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of t the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman, of little d leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was de- om a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, ed all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then gnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the Sultan. Not- ng theſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown-general, a active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. ing in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676 he was d againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute poſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the Houſe of as ſo public-ſpirited as to enter into the league that was formed ence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immor- , by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and rrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, g the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by r Leopold.

returning to Poland continued the war againſt the Turks, but ly quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted e crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious 1696.

fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many con- were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the mily. In the mean time, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, own in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the d of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought n almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the ueen, in favour of her younger ſon, prince Alexander Sobieſki, he was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. Suddenly Auguſtus, Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate; and after a ſham election, claimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow ion army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his in- d pretended that he had been actually choſen; but he was af- obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which

he was driven from the throne by Charles XII. o
cured the advancement of Staniſlaus,) and after
czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in
It was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was
throne, which he held upon precarious and diſa
Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, and we
conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was o
authority by means of his Saxon guards and regi
natural ſon, prince Maurice, afterwards the fam
choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was no
in that dignity againſt the power of Ruſſia and the
Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, ha
to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland to his ſon Augu
called by ſome, III.) This occaſioned a war, in w
maintained the intereſt of his father-in-law, Staniſl
re-elected to the throne by a conſiderable party, of
mate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Pol
army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival
whence he eſcaped with great difficulty into Franc
Germany, the war between Auguſtus II. as electo
as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and Frederic II.
been already noticed. It is ſufficient to ſay, that
a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing t
never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained
ſhelter, when the king of Pruſſia drove him from
torate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon
laus Poniatowſki was choſen king, by the name of
though it is ſaid that the election was conducted ir
obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of
He was a man of abilities and addreſs; but fro
cauſes, he had the unhappineſs to ſee Poland, durin
deſolation and calamity. In 1766, two Poliſh g
petition to the king, in the name of all the proce
behalf alſo of the members of the Greek church, w
to be re-inſtated in their ancient rights and privile
upon the ſame footing in every reſpect as the R
of the kingdom. "The difference of ſentiments o
ligion among Chriſtians," ſaid they, in their petit
enter into any conſideration with regard to the em
The different ſects of Chriſtians, although they di
themſelves with reſpect to ſome points of doctrine,
that of being faithful to their ſovereign, and obedi
the Chriſtian courts are convinced of this truth;
always this principle in view, and without having
ligion they profeſs, Chriſtian princes ought only to
merits and talents make them capable of ſerving th
The king gave no anſwer to the petition of the diſ
ter was referred to the diet, which was held the follo
miniſters of the courts of Ruſſia, London, Berlin,
ported their pretenſions. The diet appeared to re
of the diſſidents with great moderation, as to the
worſhip, which gave ſome flattering expectations th
happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king
have prevented this: for, though he openly profeſſ
fender of the cauſe of the diſſidents, it was manifeſt,

n was to promote the views of his own ambition. The inter-
he Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland alſo gave great diſguſt to
the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies
diſtinct provinces; the popiſh clergy were active in oppoſing
f the diſſidents; and this unfortunate country became the
he moſt cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly
d partly foreign. The confuſion, devaſtation, and civil war,
in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby
ize of the country was almoſt deſtroyed; many of the princi-
familics retired into foreign ſtates with their effects; and had
for a body of Ruſſian troops, which acted as guards to the
arſaw, that city had likewiſe exhibited a ſcene of plunder and
To theſe complicated evils were added, in the year 1770,
readful ſcourge, the peſtilence, which ſpread from the fron-
urkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the
and in theſe provinces, it is ſaid, ſwept off 250,000 people.
ſome of the Poliſh confederates interceded with the Turks
m againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between
s and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the
ar, and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the diſtreſſed Poles,
d honourable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian,
nd apoſtolic neighbours*.

ember 3, 1771, an attempt was made by Kozinſki, an officer
e Poliſh confederates, and ſeveral others, to aſſaſſinate the king
, in the ſtreets of Warſaw. His majeſty received two wounds
d, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; notwithſtand-
y he had the good fortune to eſcape with life, by Kozinſki's
; for which his life was ſaved, and he was ſuffered to retire to
territories, with an annual penſion from the king.

llowing year, 1772, it appeared that the king of Pruſſia, the
nd empreſs-queen, and empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an
o divide and diſmember the kingdom of Poland: though Pruſ-
merly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of
as never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Ruſſia alſo, in

ſed, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renun-
ned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire; in which ſhe
That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs, and ſucceſ-
her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories which are actually
, or ſubject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of
but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guaranty to ſaid king-
and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and di-
which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually
would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoy-
againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould, at any time, or on
, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame."—In the ſame year did the king
ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no
nd no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all
that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of
" In the ſame inſtrument he guaranties, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the
and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever.—The empreſs-queen of
as late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to
of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friend-
and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops
to alarm him; that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of
, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it." From which, accord-
political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guaranty the rights, liberties,
of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and
thoſe revenues to their own uſe.—Such is the faith of princes!

the beginning of the 17th century, saw its capital
the Poles; while Auſtria, in 1683, was indebted
the preſervation of its metropolis, and almoſt for it
three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up thei
the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for
other:—Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome di
Brandenburg, for the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all
the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together
of the crown, for the empreſs queen of Hungary
large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the
for the empreſs of Ruſſia †. But though each of
to have a legal title to the territories which were
ly, and publiſhed manifeſtoes in juſtification of th
had taken; yet as they were conſcious that the falla
ported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſ
forced the Poles to call a new diet; and threaten
not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ce
to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would
execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. I
treſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted ag
tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chooſing
and to have all their landed property confiſcated,
of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the
ening of depoſition and impriſonment, was prevail
and his example was followed by many of his ſubj

The king of Pruſſia's conduct in Poland was th
can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops e
land, and carried off from that province and its ne
derate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29
ſame year, he publiſhed an edict, commanding ev
ſevereſt penalties, and even corporeal puniſhment,
for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the mone
and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver,
of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nom
ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen pe
real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he
forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two
ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the in
to come and re-purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſ
price, and with good money, his commiſſaries ref
coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation, he
manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſt
money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria was "all that tract of la
of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir, to the mouth of
by Franepole, Zamoiſe, and Rubiciſſow, to the Bog: from the
Red Ruſſia to Zabrac, on the border of Volhinia and Podolia
ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbryta, tak
and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia and Moldavia
incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the king
domeria.

† The Ruſſian claims compriſe Poliſh Livonia, that part of
to the eaſt of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepſk, Miciſla
palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excep
Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now
vernments of Poloſk and Mohilef.

To people his own dominions at the expenſe of Poland had
it aim: for this purpoſe, he deviſed a new contribution;
nd village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of mar-
ls; the parents to give, as a portion, a feather-bed, four
w, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound
ſoot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the
ents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded
abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches,
ds their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated
n the year 1771 to the time the treaty of partition was
d poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe
, it would appear that his Pruſſian majeſty knew of no rights
, no pretenſions but thoſe of the houſe of Brandenburg; no
f juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

lent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been
s the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Eu-
ſurpriſe of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province,
tion of a prince who had neither abilities to be feared nor
e loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Eu-
alled forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction
kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, do-
d commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Eu-
the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts
n, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen remonſtrated againſt
ions; but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the
as ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of
wers. In the ſenate there was a majority of SIX, but in the
e, or aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one, in favour of the
fifty-four againſt fifty-three. This is a very alarming circum-
d ſhows that a moſt important though not happy change has
e in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power
tion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting
with moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Our anceſtors might per-
ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving
e of power in Europe than was neceſſary: but it has been well
, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth,
eral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and
ally united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in
d of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too
for the reſt, was great and liberal, and, though the reſult to
, was founded upon the moſt enlarged principles of the wiſeſt
It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the
orld has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of
. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar
policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune
expired with that ſyſtem.

evolution which happened in this country on the third of May,
ſervedly engaged much of the public attention. The evils of
narchy were indeed the chief cauſe that Poland had almoſt
be conſidered as a nation. The dynaſty of future kings of Po-
to commence in Frederick Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, with
t of inheritance to his male deſcendants: in caſe the preſent
ſhould have no male iſſue, a huſband choſen by him for his
r, with the conſent of the Poliſh repreſentatives, ſhall begin the
. But after this boaſted change, Poland would only have ad-

vanced to that degree of civiliſation which other E
joyed in the thirteenth century. Her hundreds of
been free, her millions of peaſants would have ſtill
the utmoſt, not above five hundred thouſand ou
would have been free.

After a ſhort and unequal ſtruggle with Ruſſia,
was forced to abandon the new conſtitution.
Ruſſian empreſs, replete with ſentiments diſgrace
followed by ſome ſkirmiſhes: but it is ſaid that
her own hand to the Poliſh king, in which ſhe de
to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon
duced that benignant monarch to prevent the farth

On the 6th of January, 1793, the king of Pruſ
reſpecting the march of his troops into Poland, in
*friendly* interference of her imperial Majeſty, the em
affairs of Poland. In the ſame ſtrain his majeſty
entertained *hopes* that the troubles in that country
without his own interference, eſpecially as he was
another quarter. He *laments* that he has been di
the propagation of French democracy, by means
emiſſaries, eſpecially in Great Poland, had already
as to require his moſt ſerious attention: his majeſty
that he has determined to anticipate their deſigns
cient body of troops into the territories of the
concerted proper meaſures with the friendly court
Vienna, who were equally intereſted with himſelf
republic.

The proteſt publiſhed at Grodno, in the ſitting
federation, the 3d of February, againſt this violent
evinces the deteſtation which the Poles themſelves
ſures of their pretended *friend*. They aſſure his
tinued correſpondence between the military comm
magiſtrates had enabled the confederation to declare
quillity prevailed from one end of the kingdom to
were "aſtoniſhed at the *aſſertions* of his majeſty" in
and conclude by entreating that his majeſty would
which he had given for troops to enter the republic.
however, theſe ſolemn aſſurances—notwithſtanding
the facts which were alledged in ſupport of them, th
vanced, and one of its detachments appeared under
The inhabitants refuſing entrance to the troops, the
the municipal guards diſlodged from their poſt, an
ments entered the defenceleſs city, as if it had b
aſſault. At the ſame time different Poliſh detachments
out Great Poland, were attacked and driven from th
force.

In March, the manifeſto of her imperial majeſty
the partition. Religion was, as uſual, called in to fa
act of rapine and injuſtice, and the empreſs humane
ferings of the people of Poland, among whom it h
years, her inceſſant endeavour to maintain *tranquillity*
increaſed by conſidering them as deſcended from
profeſſing the holy Chriſtian religion, which would
introduction of ſuch dreadful doctrines as were pr
unworthy Poles, who adopted the deteſtable and deſtr

ance. As an indemnification, therefore, for her loſſes, to the future ſafety of her empire, and the Poliſh dominions, ent all future changes of government, ſhe graciouſly made intention to take for ever under the ſceptre of Ruſſia thoſe and, with their inhabitants, which lie between Druy on the s, to Neroch and Dubrova, and, following the border of ſhip of Vilna, to Stolptſa, to Neſvig, and then to Pinſk: ſing Kreniſh, between Viſkero and Novogreble, near the f Galicia, to the river Dnieſter, and terminating in the old Ruſſia and Poland, at Jegertie. In this partition, the increaſe pineſs of the inhabitants was avowed to be the *ſole object* of l majeſty.

laration of the Pruſſian monarch, which was dated March 25, ny of the ſentiments contained in the Ruſſian manifeſto, and hat in order to preſerve the republic of Poland from the ffects of its internal diviſions, and to reſcue it from utter eans remained but to incorporate her frontier provinces into of Pruſſia, which, therefore, had determined to take immeſſion of the cities of Dantzic and Thorn, and the vaiwod. oſen, Gneſen, Kaliſh, and Siradia, the city and monaſtery of wa, the province of Wielun, the vaiwodſhip of Lentſchitz, ce of Cujavia and of Dobrzyn, the vaiwodſhips of Rawa s, &c.

21 of April the Pruſſian troops took poſſeſſion of Dantzic; the ſame time, the empreſs of Ruſſia commanded the king to remove to Grodno, under the eſcort of Ruſſian troops, xpreſs purpoſe of ſanctioning the alienation and partition of m.

ans employed to effect the mock ratification of the partition ortunate country were entirely characteriſtic of the baſeneſs ſe. The diet, in the month of September, was aſſailed for ffive days, with official notes from the Ruſſian ambaſſador and n miniſter, full of threats, preſſing the ſignature of the treaty. , however, perſiſted in their refuſal. At laſt M. de Sievers, ambaſſador, ſent his ultimatum in a note, which ended with ing remarkable expreſſions: "The underwritten muſt beſides ſtates of the republic aſſembled in the confederate diet, that t it of abſolute neceſſity, in order to prevent every diſorder, *ten battalions of grenadiers*, with four pieces of canon, to ſurcaſtle, to ſecure the tranquillity of their deliberations. The m expects that the ſitting will not terminate, until the degnature of the treaty is decided." Conformably to this threat, n ſoldiers ſo cloſely ſurrounded the caſtle, that no perſon was o go out: ſome of the officers took their ſtation in the ſenate, g to guard his majeſty's perſon againſt conſpirators. The king, ntrary, ſent a delegation to the Ruſſian ambaſſador, declaring ould not open the ſeſſion in the preſence of the Ruſſian officers. nce, they were ordered to retire, except the general, who ublicly, that no member ſhould be permitted to quit the ſe- e the conſent to the treaty was given. The debates were long ht; and it was not until three o'clock the next morning, after ſive diviſions, that the diet came to a reſolution in which ier, before all Europe, to whom they had frequently appealed, ontrary to the faith of treaties moſt ſacredly obſerved on their well as to that of the treaty recently entered into with his ma-

jesty, the king of Prussia, and at his own desire, in th
the independence and the integrity of Poland w
most solemn manner; that, being deprived of fre
the moment of the present act by an armed foreign
with a further invasion of the Prussian troops, th
mission and authorise a deputation appointed to trea
to sign the treaty, such as it was planned and amen
ation of the Russian ambassador."

Depressed and despairing, the Polish nation, f
existence to depend on a seasonable alliance with a
put itself under the protection of Russia, which, in
with Poland, had expressly stipulated that no ch
should take place in the form of government to
the consent of the empress or her successors: so that
gaging for the perpetuity of the new form, becam
of whatever government should be established in Pol

On the 7th of February, 1794, the baron d'In
succeeded the count de Sievers as ambassador at
public annulling of the acts of the diets of 1788
with the form of the constitution then established,
every paper, whether in public records or private
that transaction. The court of Russia soon afterw
date for the reduction of the military force to 16,
opposed by several regiments, particularly in Sout
insurgents, headed by the gallant Madalinski, a
brigadier of the national troops, peremptorily refus
spirit of resistance was widely diffused, and the ca
tary aspect. In this situation fifteen thousand Rus
into Poland, the ambassador was instructed to deliv
council an official document, representing the dange
king, and requesting the commissioners of war to
oppose Madalinski; and the permanent council wa
custody every suspected person. Both these requisi
refused; and it was pointedly replied to the latter
the laws of the republic, no Polish nobleman could
being legally convicted.

The imperious conduct of the Russians, durin
power, continued to harass the oppressed Poles, an
desperation. The peasants were compelled to l
Russian soldiers, and transport them from place to
ceiving the least remuneration, or any other rewa
insolence. It could not be expected that a galla
people would long tamely submit to such insult and
triotic spirit, though latent, was not extinguished
action by incessant sufferings, and by the continued
pid Kosciusko, who, early in February, appeared a
siderable body of Polish insurgents, attacked the
taken possession of their country, forced them to
them to a considerable distance. The Russian troo
Cracow on the 23d of March, Kosciusko entered th
of the 24th, and next morning ordered the gates
clared himself commander-in-chief of all the Pol
imposed an oath of fidelity on all the military in t
sion of the public treasure, and proceeded to mea
questration. On the day on which he entered Cra

ouched in the moſt energetic terms, inviting the nation to
r diſgraceful fetters, and to unite in forming a new con-
The proclamation was received with unanimous applauſe;
live Koſciuſko!" reſounded from every quarter. He was
the town-houſe and preſented to the principal nobility,
mbled there to receive him; and by them he was formally
the title of general. Every article for the ſupport of his
ndantly ſupplied. On the 20th, a revolutionary tribunal
d, and every fifth houſe was required to furniſh one man
quipped for the defence of the conſtitution againſt the
rs. The different corporations then aſſembled under their
ners before the town-houſe, whence the magiſtrates led
ſſion to the church of the Holy Virgin, where the conſti-
3d of May, 1791, was publicly read with great ſolemnity,
aken to defend it.

n time Warſaw was in a ſtate of the higheſt fermentation.
and its vicinity there were not leſs than fifteen thouſand
enaries, ſome of whom were quartered to the amount of
n a body, in ſeveral of the palaces. The moſt vigorous
e adopted by the permanent council; a decree paſſed, de-
ſergents rebels, and ſubjecting them to the moſt arbitrary
; and the police were charged to ſeize every perſon *ſuſpected*
ical to the exiſting government, with the promiſe of mili-
n. The unpopularity of his Poliſh majeſty daily increaſed,
of Ruſſians was appointed for his *preſervation*. About this
appy monarch iſſued a proclamation, exhorting his ſubjects
e acquieſcence, and urging the danger and deſtruction which
ir reſiſtance.

ſh nobles had no ſooner taken the oaths in the preſence of
than they departed for their reſpective eſtates, in order to
emble their vaſſals. Baron d'Ingelſtrohm, about the ſame
onded the diet at Warſaw with a military force, and de-
ſurrender of the arſenal. This demand was ſpiritedly reſiſted;
of it having been ſent to Koſciuſko, he, about the end of
k the route to Warſaw with his army, and a reinforcement
aſants, armed with pikes, &c.—On the 4th of April he was
achment of 6,000 Ruſſians, with a park of heavy artillery,
rch to reduce Cracow. A fierce encounter enſued. The
ants being driven to deſperation made a dreadful ſlaughter
ian plunderers. General Woronzow was taken priſoner, and
0 Ruſſians killed on the ſpot; while the Poles loſt only ſixty
ook eleven pieces of canon and all the ammunition. After
Koſciuſko fell back with his army towards Cracow, where
ned by a very conſiderable body of diſaffected Poliſh troops.

16th of April, baron d'Ingelſtrohm demanded the ſurrender
nal, the diſarming of the military, and that twenty perſons of
nſequence ſhould be arreſted, and, if found guilty, puniſhed
. This occaſioned a general commotion, in which the citi-
g procured arms from the arſenal, after an inceſſant combat
ſix hours, drove the Ruſſians out of the city with great ſlaugh-
eputation had been ſent to inform the king of the attempt of
ns to ſeize the arſenal; when the monarch had replied, "Go,
d your honour." The ſituation of the king after the conteſt
ery critical, and the people were extremely jealous of every
t he made. They compelled him to promiſe repeatedly that

he would not quit Warſaw; and, not ſatisfied wi
ſiſted upon placing two municipal officers as a guar
was deſired frequently to exhibit himſelf to the peo

Forty thouſand Ruſſians were now put in motion
the Ukraine, and ſixteen thouſand from Livonia
May, the corps of Koſciuſko amounted to nearly
general Kochowſki to 18,000; that of Jaſſinſki
12,000 was ſtationed at Wilna, and another at Wa
of 8,000. The peaſants were not included in this

About the end of June, a manifeſto was publiſhe
the occaſion of his troops entering Poland. On th
head quarters of the king and prince of Pruſſia were
leagues from Warſaw, whence they iſſued a plac
enemy had fled before them in their progreſs. In
ever, Koſciuſko (who had eluded the Pruſſian troo
had defeated the forces which oppoſed him, and ha
Warſaw. On the 31ſt of June, the Pruſſians be
by a heavy cannonade, and ſeveral hundred bombs
the day thrown into Warſaw; a dreadful fire
ſiegers by night and by day, and an incredible num
The king and the prince-royal are both ſaid to li
danger at this time. On the 2d of Auguſt his Pr
hopes of ſucceſs had probably been a little damp
a negociation with the king of Poland for the ſu
which was rejected. About the middle of this
tranſmitted to the Pruſſian camp of inſurrections h
Pruſſia (formerly Great Poland), of which his Pruſſ
poſſeſſion the preceding year; and on the night
ber the Pruſſian and Ruſſian forces abandoned t
after a fruitleſs attack of two months, much wea
and deſertions which prevailed in their camps, a
want of proviſions and ammunition.

In the courſe of the ſame month, the Ruſſian g
of 20,000 men, arrived in Poland, and on the 18t
took place near Brzeſc, in which the Poles loſt ve
bers, and were compelled to retreat acroſs the B
October another battle was fought between the R
Ferſen, and the troops under Koſciuſko. The Ru
to the attack, but were repulſed by the Poles, wh
nately, not contented with the advantages they ha
their favourable poſition on the heights, and preſſe
their turn. This movement threw the troops into
the Ruſſians forming themſelves anew, the rout
The battle, which began at ſeven in the morni
noon. Koſciuſko flew from rank to rank, and w
hotteſt part of the engagement. At length he fell,
did not know him in the peaſant's dreſs which
wounded him from behind with a lance. He rec
a few ſteps, but was again knocked down by anothe
preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his a
Ruſſian officer, who is ſaid to have been general Ch
wife Koſciuſko had a ſhort time before politely giv
from Warſaw to join her huſband. The unfortunat
the officer, if he wiſhed to render him a ſervice,
to put an end to his exiſtence; but the latter c

ier. The Polish infantry defended themselves with a bravery
l to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour
pproaching to fury.
ians under general Ferfen soon afterwards summoned War-
render; and on being refused, after the junction of the dif-
s under Ferfen, Dernfeldt, Dernifow, and Suwarrow, pro-
the 4th of November to attack the suburb of Praga or Prague,
from Warsaw by the Vistula, which was defended by more
ded pieces of cannon disposed upon thirty-three batteries.
ans succeeded in their assault, and the Polish generals found
unable to oppose with 10,000 soldiers, which was the whole
ce, the united attack of 50,000 men. After a severe con-
t hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased; but the
f the sanguinary Suwarrow continued for two hours longer;
ege lasted till noon on the following day. Five thousand
computed to have been slain in the assault; the remainder
imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay
arms; and their houses were plundered by the merciless
who, after the battle had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine
night, set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the
. Nine thousand persons, unarmed men, defenceless wo-
harmless infants, perished either in the flames or by the
nearly the whole of the suburb was reduced to ashes. In
of this siege it is computed that not less than 30,000 Poles lost

r being thus reduced under the power of the Russians, the
or a short time restored to a kind of mock authority, by the
ancil remitting into his hands that which it had exercised.
of November the Russian general made his triumphal en-
arsaw, in which the streets were lined with his troops, and
ses, shut up in their houses, observed a melancholy silence.
magistrate delivered him the keys of the bridge of the suburb,
he received the compliments of the king, and on the 10th
much pomp to the castle, to pay his respects to his majesty.
e the whole of this execrable scene, the first of December
t for a day of solemn thanksgiving, and *Te Deum* was sung
b of barbarous oppression.
ean time Kosciusko was under surgical care at Nozcylack,
most attention was paid to his recovery, particularly by ma-
ozzzow. He was afterwards sent to Petersburg, under a
ul military escort, and was confined in the fortress there till
f the late empress, when the present emperor, who has on
ions shown great liberality towards the persecuted Poles, set
y, assigned him a pension, and allowed him his choice,
rn to his own country, or go to America. Kosciusko pre-
latter, and arrived safely in the asylum which he chose.
thither he passed through England, and was received with
welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom.
e left America, and is at present in France.
th of December, 1794, a courier arrived from the empress,
the arrestation of count Ignatius Potocki, and several of the
s, whom she ordered to be sent to Petersburg. The same
nought a command from the empress to the unhappy mo-
land to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the sum-
ff from his capital on the 7th of January, 1795.

The unfortunate king was afterwards removed t
be had a palace and a ſuitable penſion aſſigned him,
February 11, 1798. With him ended the kingdom
Staniſlaus Auguſtus (late count Poniatowſki) w
1732; elected king of Poland September 7, and cr
1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, r
London, and was a fellow of the Royal Society.

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# SWITZERLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 260 / Breadth 100 | between | 6 and 11 Eaſt l / 46 and 48 North |

Containing 13,600 ſquare miles, with 138 inh

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alſace and S
on the North; by the Lake
and Trent, on the Eaſt; by Italy, on the South;
Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thir
ſtand, in point of precedency, as follows: 1. Z
Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden
9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffh

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions an
each canton is as follows:

| SWITZERLAND. COUNTRIES' NAMES. | | Miles in Length | Miles in Breadth. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Calviniſts | Berne | 111 | 87 | Berne |
| | Zurich | 34 | 33 | Zurich |
| | Schaffhauſen | 23 | 9 | Schaffha |
| | Baſil | 21 | 18 | BASIL |
| | | | | Lucerne |
| Papiſts | Lucerne | 33 | 35 | Stantz |
| | Underwalden | 23 | 16 | Altorf |
| | Uri | 48 | 21 | Schweitz |
| | Schweitz | 27 | 13 | Fribourg |
| | Fribourg | 24 | 21 | Zug |
| | Zug | 18 | 10 | Soleure, |
| | Soleure | 31 | 24 | Appenze |
| Calviniſts and Papiſts | Appenzel | 23 | 21 | Glaris |
| | Glaris | 24 | 18 | Baden |
| The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts, and Papiſts | Baden | 26 | 12 | Bremgar |
| | Bremgarten | | | Mellinge |
| | Mellingen | | | Rheinec |
| | Rheinthal | 20 | 5 | Frowane |
| | Thurgau | 18 | 11 | Lugano |
| | Lugano | 52 | 30 | Locarno |
| | Locarno | | | Mondris |
| | Mondris | | | Maggia |
| | Maggia | | | |

| f the SWITZERS. ...ES' NAMES. | Miles in Length | Miles in Breadth. | CHIEF CITIES. |
|---|---|---|---|
| - - Grisons - - - - | 100 | 62 | Coire |
| the Cal- Pay. Chiavenna | 42 | 34 | Chiavenna |
| Bormio, and | 27 | 19 | Sondrio |
| Valteline - | | | |
| Tockenburg - | 27 | 8 | Liechtensteg |
| - - Geneva - - - - | 13 | 11 | Geneva |
| Neufchatel - - | 32 | 20 | Neufchatel |
| Valais - - - - | 80 | 30 | Sion |
| - - Basle - - - - - | 13 | 16 | Delsperg |
| St. Gall - - - - | 20 | 10 | St. Gall |
| | | | Mulhausen, in Alsace, is also united to them. |

...LIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps ...orm an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the frosts are ...tly severe in winter, the hills being covered with snow some- ... the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders ... province very unequal in its seasons: on one side of those ...s the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on ... The valleys, however, are warm and fruitful, and well culti- ...nd nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in ...ming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which ...ublic granaries are every where erected, to supply the failure of ...s. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often ... from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a ... effect.

...is, perhaps, no country in the world where the advantageous ... unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably con- ...than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts, ...ler is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were for- ...ren now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; ...ark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so ...t a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. ... the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction ...il, situation, and climate, have thrown in their way, and to ...ad fertility over various spots of the country, which nature ...o have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the ...o, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with ..., corn-fields, meadows, and pasture-grounds. Other parts of ...try are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and ...le rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow ... The valleys between these icy and snowy mountains appear ...many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ...ently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some ...re is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high culti- ...in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. ...es a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed ...ood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the ...pastures wich appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most de- ... landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear ...ucks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered ... and snow.

GLACIERS.] No ſubject in natural hiſtory is m
origin of theſe glaciers, which are immenſe field
reſt on an inclined plane: being puſhed forward
their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by th
neath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe crev
appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic
all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the decliv
or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe deſcribes the method of travelling
"We had each of us a long pole ſpiked with iron
cure us as much as poſſible from ſlipping, the gu
ſhoes *crampons*, or ſmall bars of iron, provided w
of the ſame metal. At other times, inſtead of *cra*
nails in our ſhoes, which more effectually anſwered
difficulty of croſſing theſe valleys of ice ariſes from
We rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them; a
time before they reached the bottom gave us ſome
depth; our guides aſſured us, that in ſome places t
five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwiſe conve
of this body of ice broken into irregular ridges an
by comparing it to a lake inſtantaneouſly frozen in
lent ſtorm." In ſpeaking of an unſucceſsful atte
men to reach the ſummit of Mont Blanc, he preſ
moſt horrid image of the danger of theſe chaſms.
turning in great haſte (owing to the day being far a
party ſlipped, in attempting to leap over a chaſm
his hand a long pole, ſpiked with iron, which he f
and upon this he hung, dreadfully ſuſpended for a
he was releaſed by his companions."

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country,
upon a grand ſcale, Mont Blanc is particularly diſti
mountains, by having its ſummits and ſides cloth
depth with a mantle of ſnow, almoſt without the
leaſt rock to break the glare of the *white* appear
the calculation of M. de Luc (by whoſe improvemen
elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy
the height of this mountain above the level of the ſe
toiſes, or 15,304 Engliſh feet; or, according to
burgh, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of o
peaks of Teneriffe and Ætna have been frequently
higheſt points of the globe: but, from the moſt ac
it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more co
and that there are no mountains (except thoſe in A
Chimboraço, the higheſt point of the Cordilleras, the
according to Condamine, ſurpaſſes 3,000 toiſes, or
cording to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to t
Blanc.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief Rivers are the
in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard)
the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhône. The lakes a
Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Bienne, and B

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains co
cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral wate

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Se
ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax,

pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chesnuts; the parts towards nd in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and e cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish, and fowl, ound, in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the bouquerin and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hard-vable. The blood of both of these animals is of so hot a nature, inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to pleuri-a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that dis-The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer are said to resemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two species le together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come n the valleys.

LATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } According to the best accounts, the cantons erland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, ndustrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zeal-chment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity rs, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invin-irit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the nts of Switzerland. A very striking proof of the simplicity and of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is d by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general that, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small inhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices ed: any passengers who wish to become purchasers, enter the ake away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened their common people are far more intelligent than the same men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very pre-mong those who are in better circumstances, and even among f the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is ly conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into ntry, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and sa-n which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The ss of the houses and of the people is peculiarly striking; and eir manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring na-who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even s cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and ty, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the can-ch cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of land: and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occa-Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally pro-in some of the cantons: and even the head-dresses of the ladies ulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited: and in

other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, ſhillings of our money, incurs a conſiderable fin therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kin is not waſted in games of chance, many of them leiſure hours in reading, to the great improvement ings. The youth are diligently trained to all the m as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and the croſs-bow and the muſquet.

GOITRES AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in o try, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are v *goitres*, or large excreſcences of fleſh that grow fr often increaſe to a moſt enormous ſize; but what is idiotiſm alſo remarkably abounds among them. Coxe, "many inſtances of both kinds; as I paſſed idiots were baſking in the ſun, with their tongues o hanging down, exhibiting the moſt affecting ſpectac becility that can poſſibly be conceived." The cau frequency of theſe phænomena in this country fo queſtion.

The notion that ſnow water occaſions theſe exc void of foundation. For, on that ſuppoſition, wh thoſe places that lie moſt contiguous to the glaciers other water than what deſcends from theſe immen and ſnow, free from this malady? And why are thoſe countries in which there is no ſnow afflicted guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of N of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the Eaſt Ind unknown.

The ſprings that ſupply drink to the natives are in calcareous matter called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly ſimil tions of Matlock in Derbyſhire, ſo minutely diſſolved to affect the tranſparency of the water. It is not in impalpable particles of this ſubſtance, thus diſſolved, themſelves into the glands of the throat, and produc following reaſons: becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous dep in all thoſe diſtricts where goitres are common. Th perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in various parts o the Valteline, at Lucerne, Friburg, and Berne, near A ſeveral places of the Pays-de-Vaud, near Dreſden, in voy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the favour of this opinion, ſays our author, is derived fro facts. A ſurgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, in he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf-li* goitres; and that from one in particular, which ſupparat ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He ſame ſubſtance is found in the ſtomach of cows, and tumours to which even the dogs of the country are ſo diminiſhed and cured the goitres of many young perſo liquors, and external applications; and prevented them removing his patients from the place where the ſprings a with *tuf*; and if that could not be contrived, by forbid water which was not purified.

Children are occaſionally born with guttural ſwellings, ariſe from the aliment of the mother. It is to be preſu ple accuſtomed to theſe excreſcences will not be ſhocked

t it does not appear, as ſome writers aſſert, that they con-
beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers,
ſuppoſed that the natives, without exception, were either
ves; whereas, in fact, the Vallaiſans, in general, are a
and all that with truth can be affirmed is, that goitrous per-
ons are more abundant in ſome diſtricts of the Vallais than
any other part of the globe. It has been aſſerted that the
much reſpect theſe idiots, and even conſider them as *bleſſ-*
*ed*. The common people, it is certain, eſteem them ſo,
ll them "*ſouls of God without ſin*;" and many parents preſer
children to thoſe whoſe underſtandings are perfect, becauſe,
e incapable of intentional criminality, they conſider them as
appineſs in a future ſtate. Nor is this opinion entirely with-
l effect, as it diſpoſes the parents to pay greater attention to
ſe beings. Theſe idiots are ſuffered to marry, as well among
as with others*.

ION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political
et they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table
ay perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created
ſe commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuin-
the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a mo-
derate, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few
e points; ſo that Calviniſm may be ſaid to be the religion of
moſt Swiſſes. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with re-
the mode of the church government; for in ſome doctrinal
ey are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is,
too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and
ey are ardently attached to the intereſts of civil liberty, their
s on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much
al.

UAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the
mmon is German. The Swiſſes who border upon France
baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or

RNED AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well
n all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva,
re held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country.
genious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent
ceived with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva.
gave a force to the French language, which it was thought in-
of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe
nly, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the
*de Village*, in particular, is much eſteemed. M. Bonnet, and
e Sauſſure and de Luc, alſo deſerve to be mentioned with ap-
Haller, a native of Berne, deſerves the higheſt eulogy, as a
phyſiologiſt, and a philoſopher. Lavater, ſo celebrated for his
on phyſiognomy, and ſome other works, is likwiſe of this
).

VERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in
has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt
; and adjoining to the library, which poſſeſſes ſome valuable
ſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial cu-

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſitua
of the Rhône from the large fine lake of Geneva. It i
learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the ge
its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of
its ſituation it is a thoroughfare from Germany, Fran
contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts
teſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, ef
lightful place. But the fermentation of their politic
the uſurpation of the ſenate, has divided the citizens
the late ſtruggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly
of the citizens have accordingly left the place, and
protection in other countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The prod
linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribband
cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland; and
now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws
velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great prog
factures and in agriculture gives them a proſpect of
make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The old
vernment of Switzerland, which, if they are not to b
tirely ſubverted, are, for the preſent at leaſt, ſuſpende
and influence of the French, are very complicated,
though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſto
democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own
thoſe of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other depe
cratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne
of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and App
tical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ari
clines to a democracy. But even theſe ariſtocracie
differ in their particular modes of government. How
the real intereſts of the people appear to be much att
enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in
ments. Each canton has prudently reconciled itſelf t
neighbour, and cemented, on the baſis of affection,
defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comp
ſiſts. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called.
Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Swiſſes
protection. The third are thoſe præfectures, which,
the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each
magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a li
when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole
referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, w
having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majo
diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſi
the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and
ſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been in
account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there
which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail
For whether the government be ariſtocratical, demo
a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſe
ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates (which of all othe
moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the p
ject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violati

d by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſump-
s, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children,
nſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which con-
thin the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent common-
and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected in-
this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch
was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of
s, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that, ſince the firm
plete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, and till the un-
d invaſion of their country by the French, they have ſcarcely
occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and
d no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very
pily terminated.

ſent Switzerland, under the power and influence of the French,
the Helvetic republic, and has its councils and directory. But
s unneceſſary to enter into a minute detail of this conſtitution,
though the old Helvetic confederacy and forms of government
ot be reſtored, it will probably undergo great alterations in con-
e of the late revolution in France.

ENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the
onfederacy renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their
s. Thoſe of the canton of Berne are ſaid to amount annually to
0 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in
tion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after
ing the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common
and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l.
in the Engliſh funds, beſides their property in other banks.
revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne land; 2. The
f the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and
n merchandiſe; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and
ſual taxes.

ITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons,
ident of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to
pulation and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with
this force is raiſed and employed are truly admirable, as are the
ments which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that
ody of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied,
benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every
r, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of
appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at the mark; furniſh him-
th proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be
ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the
of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as march-
giments: in the latter caſe the government permits the enliſting
ers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or
whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article.
o ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted
t the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

STORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already
ewed, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Ju-
ſar. Their mountainous uninviting ſituation formed a better ſe-
y for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the
e preſent. They continued long under little more than a nominal
ction to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300,
the emperor, Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that

they petitioned him against the cruelty of their g
only to double the hardships of the people; and o
governors, Gresler, in the wantonness of tyrann
pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as m
self. The famous William Tell being observed t
out taking notice of the hat, and being an exc
tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he c
son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow.
and Gresler asking him the meaning of another ar
his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intend
heart, if he had killed his son. Tell was cond
this; but making his escape, he watched his oppo
tyrant, and thereby laid the foundation of the Hel

It appears, however, that, before this event, th
from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by
among them. Their measures were so just, and th
that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an a
Uri, Schweitz, and Underwald, on the principles o
the frequent successes of their arms against Albert,
sensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They
and Zug, and admitted them to an equal particip
Berne united itself in 1353; Friburg and Soleure i
and Schaffhausen in 1015; and Appenzel, in 1513,
federacy, which repeatedly defeated the united p
Germany; till, by the treaty of Westphalia, in 16
was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neufchatel, since the year 1707, has been under
king of Prussia; but the inhabitants are free to serve
and by no means bound to take an active part in
has the power of recruiting among them, and of
but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly,
is laid out on the roads and other public works of th

Towards the close of the year 1797, Switzerlan
rapacity and ambition of France; the emissaries and
republic had prepared the way for the subjugation
exciting among the people a spirit of discontent agai
especially in the aristocratic republics. That the aris
land were not entirely blameless, either in their co
subjects or towards the French, may, perhaps, be tru
of the state, and its very moderate emoluments, were
the majority of the cantons, monopolized by a few fa
be remembered that their authority was exercised w
deration, and that the people were contented and happ
of the French directory, in their attack on Switzerl
might endeavour to colour them by pretending that
by the people, and that their sole aim was to assert th
liberty, no doubt were to give employment to, and pro
der for, their armies; as also to secure the command
possession of the important posts of which, in case of a
ties with the empire, would both secure their frontier
to attack with much greater advantage.

The first act of hostility on the part of the French
the Helvetic part of the bishopric of Basle, of which th
under some frivolous pretext, and contrary to an expres

Swiſs in the year 1792. The Helvetic body, knowing they weak to reſiſt, ſubmitted patiently to this uſurpation; but ſoon inſurrection which took place in the Pays-de-Vaud, and which, improbable, was produced by the inſtigation of the agents of afforded an opportunity for an interference which ſoon termi- the ſubjection of almoſt the whole of Switzerland to the French nd almoſt the entire overthrow of its form of government. In nth of December, the French directory took upon them to demand government of Berne, what they termed the reſtoration of the f that people, and the aſſembling the ſtates of the Pays-de-Vaud. mand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms, and general d was ordered to march with a body of 15,000 men, to ſupport ns of the diſcontented in that country. The ſupreme council of fearful of entering into a conteſt with the powerful armies of on the 5th of January, 1798, iſſued a proclamation enjoining ens of the Pays-de-Vaud to aſſemble in arms, to renew the oath iance, to proceed to reform the abuſes of the government, and t and re-eſtabliſh all their ancient rights. The malcontents, r, encouraged by the protection of the French army, proceeded to ſtilities, and ſeized on the caſtle of Chignon. The government e now had recourſe to arms, and ordered a body of 20,000 troops, the command of colonel Weiſs, to diſperſe the inſurgents. But reſt was ſoon decided by the French army under general Mey- which immediately advanced while the Swiſs retreated, and, by ginning of February, had taken poſſeſſion of the whole of the e-Vaud.

council of Berne ſtill attempted to negotiate with the French di- ; but at the ſame time aſſembled an army of about 20,000 men, mand of which they gave to M. d'Erlach, formerly a field- in the ſervice of France. This force was joined by the quotas of r Swiſs cantons, amounting to about 5,500 men. The directory, r, required that the ancient magiſtrates of Berne ſhould be diſ- om their offices, and the conſtitution of the ſtate changed to e agreeable to democratic principles and the new ſyſtem of li- d equality. Theſe conditions the government of Berne abſo- uſed to ſubmit to, and ſent off orders to break off all further tions. The directory, alarmed at this appearance of firmneſs and e, and fearing they were not ſufficiently prepared, ſent general o take the command of their army in the Pays-de-Vaud, with to conclude an armiſtice until he ſhould receive a ſufficient rein- nt. Brune, immediately upon his arrival, announced to the f Berne, that he came prepared to adjuſt all differences amicably, queſted that they would ſend commiſſioners to treat with him. were accordingly ſent, and an armiſtice concluded for eight days. the 2d of March, two days, it is affirmed, before the truce agreed expired, the caſtle of Domach, at the northern extremity of the of Soleure, was attacked and carried by the French; and, at the me, 13,000 men were marched under the walls of Soleure, which ued to general Schawenbourg on the firſt ſummons. Friburg ediately after reduced by general Brune, and the Swiſs army was o retreat.

French generals immediately advanced towards Berne, where all uſion both in the city and in the army, the left diviſion of which tinied, deſerted their poſts, and put to death ſome of their officers. viſs army was reduced by deſertion to 14,000 men, excluſive of a

rabble of undiſciplined peaſants, raiſed by the *landſ* country *en maſſe*. About 8,000 of the regular for Neweneg, and 6,400 held the poſition of Frauenbru neral Schawenbourg advanced from Soleure, at the On the morning of the 5th of March both poſts w French. The troops of Neweneg repulſed the Frauenbrun, after a vigorous reſiſtance, were co M. d'Erlach rallied his men at Uteren, where a ſeco place, but with no better ſucceſs on the part of the wards, however, made a ſtand at Grauholtz, about from Berne; but were thence driven to the gates o after another ſevere battle, they were entirely de evening of the 5th general Brune entered the city of B The diviſions of the Swiſs army ſtationed at Newen treated, and the ſoldiers of the latter columns, in a ſpair, murdered their officers, and among others thei D'Erlach.

The defeat of the Berneſe was followed by the the whole of Switzerland; though the democratic r ſtand, defeated general Schawenbourg, and forced h loſs of 3,000 men, after he had conſented to a trea gaged not to enter the ſmaller cantons.

After this revolution the Swiſs confederacy change even its name. Provincial governments, under t French generals, were eſtabliſhed in the different diſt aſſumed the name of the Helvetic republic. Contri tions were levied, as uſual, by the French commiſſ ſhocking enormities perpetrated. During the cam northern parts of Switzerland became the ſeat of war ans and French, and the cantons of Schaffhauſen an the latter, ſuffered the ſevereſt diſtreſs from the rava ing armies. What will be the future ſtate of Switz to ſay. Should the allies be ſo ſucceſsful as to force cuate the country, renounce their influence over it, to itſelf, its ancient conſtitution and government w ſtored; but it muſt no doubt be long before it will former tranquillity and happineſs.

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# SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 700 | between | 10 and 3 Eaſt |
| Breadth 500 | | 46 and 44 North |

Containing 150,763 ſquare miles, with ſixty-nine

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the Weſt by P lantic Ocean; by the Mediter by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains from France, on the North; and by the ſtrait of th the South.

ow divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Medi-
n.

| NTRIES' NAMES. | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. | CHIEF CITIES. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Caſtile, New | 27,840 | 220 | 180 | MADRID. { N. Lat. 49-25 W. Long. 3-20. |
| Andaluſia | 16,500 | 273 | 135 | Seville |
| Caſtile, Old | 14,400 | 193 | 140 | Burgos |
| Arragon | 13,818 | 19 | 105 | Saragoſſa |
| Eſtremadura | 12,600 | 180 | 123 | Badajos |
| Galicia | 12,000 | 165 | 120 | Compoſtella |
| Leon | 11,200 | 167 | 96 | Leon |
| Catalonia | 9,000 | 172 | 110 | Barcelona |
| Grenada | 8,100 | 200 | 45 | Grenada |
| Valencia | 6,800 | 180 | 75 | Valencia |
| Biſcay and Guipuſcoa | 4,760 | 140 | 55 | Bilboa |
| Aſturia | 4,600 | 124 | 55 | Oviedo |
| Murcia | 3,600 | 87 | 65 | Murcia |
| Upper Navarre | 3,000 | 92 | 45 | Pampeluna |
| Majorca I. | 1,400 | 58 | 40 | Majorca |
| Yvica I. | 625 | 37 | 25 | Yvica |
| Minorca I. | 520 | 41 | 20 | Citadella. |
| Total | 150,763 | | | |

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portu-
was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia,
s Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided
rior and Ulterior, the Citerior contained the provinces lying
the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part,
ended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the
changes that it afterwards underwent; but they are less accu-
own than thoſe of any other European country.

ATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Except during the equinoctial rains,
f Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern
s in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run
Spain, are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by
ſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts;
hoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very

s the moiſture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of
nd to the ſouth by ſnowy mountains, that the utmoſt care is not
to preſerve their fruits, their grain, their inſtruments of iron, from
from rot, and from ruſt. Both the acetous and the putrid fer-
n here make a rapid progreſs. Beſides the relaxing humidity
limate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much
revalence of moſt diſeaſes which infect the principality of Aſtu-
et, although ſubject to ſuch a variety of endemical diſeaſes, few
can produce more inſtances of longevity; many live to the
hundred, ſome to a hundred and ten, and others much longer
obſervation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the pariſh
an de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate adminiſtered the ſacrament

to thirteen perſons whoſe ages together made one
dred and ninety-nine, the youngeſt of theſe being on
and the oldeſt one hundred and twenty-ſeven. But
nances, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died
aged more than one hundred and forty-ſix years.

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in co
have lately found ſome ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe
their indolence; the cauſes of which will be afterw
produces in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the
licious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy
prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. The wi
cially ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among
are, in the diſtrict of Malaga (according to Mr. To
thouſand wine preſſes, chiefly employed in maki
which, if white, from the nature of the country,
if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in Engl
Tent. Good mountain is ſold from thirteen to
butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, accor
age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to
enter this port every year, of which about one-ten
the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fiſh, are computed
per annum; but it has been conſiderably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts o
cauſe uncultivated, ground; but no country perha
number of inhabitants who neither toil nor work f
are the generous qualities of the ſoil. Even ſugar-ca
and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abunda
Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhep
40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of th
changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and
culars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſhe
fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves.
tains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits,
tops: and Seville oranges are noted all over the w
produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, whi
of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious.
Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, th
its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the
tries in the world owe more than Spain does to
induſtry.

The medicinal waters of Spain are little known
rous ſprings are found in Grenada, Seville, and
Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qua
excelled by thoſe of no country in Europe: and
more and more reſorted to, eſpecially at Alhamar, in

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpeci
numerous; the chief, and the higheſt, are the Pyré
in length, which extend from the bay of Biſcay to
and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountai
narrow paſſages to France; and the road over th
Rouſſillon from Catalonia reflects great honour o
planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30
nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which
with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are
of continuation of the Pyrenées, and reach to the A

nifferre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with
e, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times,
illars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite
ca.

he mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the
the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world,
n, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about
from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality
a. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ſerrado, or the
ain; and is ſo named from its ſingular and extraordinary
it is broken and divided, and crowned with an infinite num-
g cones, or pine heads, ſo that it has the appearance, when
ſtance, of the work of man; but, upon nearer approach,
evidently the production of nature. It is a ſpot ſo ad-
apted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for
been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow
forſake it. When the mountain is firſt perceived at a
it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut
forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height,
like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a
, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain: and the whole
an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference. The
compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like
mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though
ſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected
ountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montſerrat, to which pil-
t from the farthеſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come
d gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the
Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſand perſons
one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for
eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of
, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying
ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitant
theſe hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the
of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on
all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the
from the hands of the mountain vicar, and, after divine
ce together. They meet alſo at this hermitage on the days of
to whom their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs,
ine with each other. But at other times they live in a very
d recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to
rules of abſtinence. They never eat fleſh; nor are they
keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living
their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly
The number of profeſſed monks there is 76, of lay bro-
and of ſinging boys 25; beſides phyſicians, ſurgeons, and ſer-
t. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription
rdinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits,
n ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca,
, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

AND LAKES.] The principal rivers of Spain are the Douro,
Duriu, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean, below Oporto in
the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean

*Townſend eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet; and obſerves that the arms
ain are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a ſaw.

below Liſbon; the Guadiana, which falls into the
Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver at St. L
the ancient Iberus, which falls into the Medi
Torteſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very
Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediter
The name of Tinto has been given it from the ting
are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand,
a moſt ſurprizing manner. If a ſtone happens to
another, they both become, in a year's time, perf
glutinated.—This river withers all the plants on
the roots of trees, which it dyes of the ſame h
kind of verdure will come up where it reaches,
ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given t
general no animals will drink out of this river, e
fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. The
continue till other rivulets run into it and alter
paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other ri
Mediterranean ſea, ſix leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Be
fiſh, particularly excellent trout. The water of
is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay,
monly called the Groyne), Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar
Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca in that iſland, an
Mahon in the iſland of Minorca. The ſtrait of G
from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds i
variety, of the ſame kinds, as the other coun
nelian, agate, loadſtone, jacinths, turquois ſton
lead, ſulphur, alum, calamine, cryſtal, marbles
phyry, the fineſt jaſper, and even diamonds, e
are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that
the beſt arms in the world, and, in former times
venue to the crown; the art of working it
great perfection.—Spaniſh gun-barrels, and ſwor
highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was
ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that
temporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, t
nians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic a
were of that metal. Theſe mines have now di
by their being exhauſted, or through the indole
not working them, we cannot ſay; though the
the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } The Spaniſh h
Andaluſia, are
ſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time
able. The king does all he can to monopoliſe
own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes lik
cattle; and the wild bulls have ſo much fero
were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court
nor are they yet diſuſed. Wolves are the chief
which is well ſtored with all the game and w
found in the neighbouring countries already
ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecial
here cured in great perfection. This country

Mr. Dillon obſerves, that, in 1754, La Mancha was cover-
n, and the horrors of famine aſſailed the fruitful provinces
a, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared
ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere
become gloomy, and the fineſt ſummer day in Eſtrema-
rendered more diſmal than the winter of Holland. Their
elling is ſo delicate, that they can diſcover a corn field or a
a conſiderable diſtance; which they will ravage almoſt in an
r. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely
al obſervation, might deſtroy the eggs of theſe formidable
thereby totally extirpate them.

TION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Spain, formerly the
OMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } moſt populous kingdom
is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the
of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of
who will not labour to raiſe food for their families. An-
may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt number of eccleſiaſtics,
xes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have aſ-
ral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the
ſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this king-
been computed, by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to
; ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, con-
s extent.

rſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſti-
ir hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are
ſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains
eir upper lips of the muſtachoes, and to introduce among them
dreſs inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkins, ſtraight
and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined
er ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the Houſe
n to the throne, affected that antiquated dreſs, in hatred
ept of the French; and the government probably will find
culty in aboliſhing it entirely, as the ſame ſpirit is far from
inguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none
, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and
pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This
reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to Ame-
e they can retain all their native importance, without the
ſeeing a ſuperior.

ous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt ex-
lities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and
timents; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman,
, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt
wars they have had with England, for near 100 years paſt, we
inſtances of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have
confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and
, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is
ſurpriſing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters
from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great

beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that
nds in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all
bjects who were in diſtreſs and fell into their hands, not only
ing them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in
ospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are careſully to
nobility, gentry, and traders from the lower r
are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any othe
of Spain, of the Houſe of Bourbon, have felde
native Spaniards of great families as their min
rally French or Italians, but moſt commonly th
power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late
jeſt ſtations.—Hence it is, that the French ki
acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very
the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt
broiled his maſter with all Europe, till he
and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of thei
zarded a rebellion in the capital, by his op
meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts
qualities that are to be found in other nations.
of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers,
who, being unable to live in their own countr
niards.—In time of war, they follow privatee
and when peace returns, they engage in all ill
enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the
are about 40,000 gypſies, who, beſides their t
are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villa
the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne
pear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men,
buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The
ſullen ſedate race, better adapted to the occu
leſs eager to change place, and of a much mo
of mind than the former. The Andaluſians
talkers and rhodomontaders of Spain. The C
frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and
tilians are, perhaps, the leaſt induſtrious of
Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more
of manners;—both are of a firm determined
are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rat
mer. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent,
controul, more reſembling a colony of repub
of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians
taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſ
ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſt
romances: for though it muſt be acknowledged
fine women as any country in the world, yet
ing their general character. In their perſons th
and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ great
fects of nature.—If we were to hazard a con
ſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather dimini
eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their
paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks
doubtedly diſfigures their complexions and ſhriv
the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by
briety in eating and drinking is remarkable. T
faſt, as well as ſup, in bed. Their breakfaſt i
being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is g

e, bacon, and greens, &c. all boiled together. They live
on garlic, chives, ſallad, and radiſhes; which, according to
eir proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very
e; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes usually
r dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is
ons practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain, and Por-
here generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabi-
mally in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England.
man body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of
at heat, through the whole day, without ſome ſuch refreſhment:
refore, the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after
which in thoſe countries is over early; and this time of repoſe,
h for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Siſta*, and in
*the Seſta*. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment,
may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame
dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are inſipid and
bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a
above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough
rd by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain.
ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace.
ſtly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in
ne nights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to
ntry, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and man-
the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an
ity of ſhowing their courage and activity before their miſ-
nd the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and re-
according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has
theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form
ons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the
The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of
ority, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by
ards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through
nce, and partly through rivalſhip.

Is not a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the
f exhibiting bull-fights; and it is ſaid, that even the pooreſt
s of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together, in order to
cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon aſſes for want of

RON.] The Romiſh religion is the only one tolerated in
The inquiſition is a tribunal diſgraceful to human-nature; but
uſed, it is not yet abrogated; but the eccleſiaſtics and their
n carry no ſentence into execution without the royal autho-
e Spaniards embrace and practiſe the Roman-catholic religion
s abſurdities, and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their
liſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears,
that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors
e reſt of the catholic world has loſt much of its activity,
s nearly extinguiſhed; and the power of the clergy has been
duced of late years. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to
he admiſſion of novices into the different convents, without
miſſion: which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic
It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain,
ars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as little true
ligion as in any country under heaven.

alonia, the confidence of the people in the interceſſion of ſaints

has at all periods been a ſource of conſolation occaſions has betrayed them into miſchief. tiſans, and every ſhip that ſails, is under the ſome patron. Beſides folio volumes, which miracles performed by our Lady in Montſerrat, is loaded with votive tablets. This has been tion, and among the merchants has brought The companies of inſurance, in the laſt war, favourite ſaint, ſuch as San Ramon de Pe Merced, and others, aſſociated in form by th and named in every policy of inſurance; a ſcrupulous exactneſs allotted to them their the ſame as to any other partner, they conclud ful aſſociates it was not poſſible for them to perſuaſion, they ventured, about the year 177 Weſt Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the En fuſed to do it at any premium, and indeed wh already in the Engliſh ports. By this fatal ſtro panies, except two, were ruined.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] archbiſhoprics, and forty-ſix biſhopries. The ſtyled the primate of Spain; he is great ch has a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per a court has now many ways of leſſening the as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. a eties of agriculture. This archbiſhopric pay eats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides o aſſerted that there is not a biſhopric in Spa other quartered upon it; and the ſecond-rate be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich are taken the penſions of the new order of kni The riches of the Spaniſh churches and con objects of admiration to all travellers as well ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ and jewels they contain.

LANGUAGE.] The Spaniſh language, like th the Latin; and it might properly be called not for the terminations, and the exotic words Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It i language: and it is remarkable, that foreig beſt, prize it moſt. It makes but a poor tranſlations; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt a Shakſpeare does French. It may, however, b tongue, having nearly retained its purity for Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro, que cado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; ha tierra commo en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nue cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal; porque cia, y la gloria, por los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain men in proportion to the excellent capacities fect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to the inde Spaniards, which prevents them from making lite arts which they otherwiſe would: but th

in Spain is the deſpotic nature of its government. Several
ient fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes
Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has
roduced ſome excellent phyſicians. Such was the gloom of
ian government that took place with the emperor Charles V.
lluſtrable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at
in 1549, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common
and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the
f Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. His ſatire upon
ntry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſer-
is country, by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now
our to his own memory. He was in priſon for debt when he
d the firſt part of his hiſtory, and is perhaps to be placed at the
moral and humorous ſatiriſts.
itions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatiri-
s, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have ren-
is author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid
eat 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling
in verſe and in proſe. Beſides his merit as a poet, he was well
in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His
are compriſed in three volumes 4to, two of which conſiſt of
, and the third of pieces in proſe. As a poet, he excelled both in
ous and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimi-
lar which we admire in Butler and Swift.
ry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. The moſt diſtin-
dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was con-
ry with our Shakſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſh-
ertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works
rded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of
, than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fu-
ieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes,
his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes more; ex-
of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos*
*ſacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable
but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.
atus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was
iard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their
Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have
great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of Ame-
nd writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen.—
the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo
en one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay
genuity, very extenſive reading, and uncommon liberality of
nt, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered.
of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in
olumes 8vo. Don Franciſco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Va-
and author of a Diſſertation on the Phœnician Language, may
ed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe pro-
many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally
g and inſtructive.
e of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts;
t only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover
ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects;
ao, in an elaborate treatiſe on the art of painting, in two vo-
folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty three

painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from
nand the catholic, to the concluſion of the re
Amongſt the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were,
who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke; Ri
Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to th

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univ
which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth k
year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which a
Moſt of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be e
others are, Seville, Grenada, Compoſtella, Toledo,
Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tor
Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avil
and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } The ſu
chiefly of
antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected
over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſuppor
of 159 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres,
found at Terago, and different parts of Spain.
tower, near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, tho
the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca
a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones: it was
da, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the
Roman theatre, which is now converted into a ch
of the moſt curious remains of antiquity. It is 6
500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height;
amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillar
ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are 366 al
every part being enriched and adorned with the mo
ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where muc
nufactured, is a very high bridge, built, in 1768, o
decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its ere
At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway,
raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hami
entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any
except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Mulviedr
ful Saguntum deſtroyed by Hannibal) are ſome R
the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 8
ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9
attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent.
diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alha
which is one of the moſt entire as well as the moſt fa
edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was bu
ſecond Mooriſh king of Grenada; and, in 1492, in
eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is
which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of
myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the w
bra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in
never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It
ſtone; the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and
inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of
gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by th
made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand

with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſen-
of battles, in marble baſſo-relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a
many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large
different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls,
ilings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered
various Arabic ſentences. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls,
and ceilings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound
range and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end
gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more
ul ſituation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace
of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of
a, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day
the loſs of Grenada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the reco-
the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh
remain in Spain: ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and
exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

ng the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy
form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana,
like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then riſes
The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory, at Madrid, was opened to
blic, by his Majeſty's orders, in 1775. Every thing in this col-
is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are
d twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhown privately to
en of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious
, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect: but the collection of birds
ith at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to im-
rapidly, if care be taken to obtain the productions of the Spaniſh
an colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons,
cups, plates, and ornamental pieces, of the fineſt agates, ame-
rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold and enamel, ſet with cameos,
os, &c. in elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to
been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet alſo con-
pecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

llowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth
een found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been
t to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt
f the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred
n feet above the horizon. Many pillars, of various ſizes, ſome
m two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings
es, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips
the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactites, of a whitiſh
r, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the
, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the
cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only
wn of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the towns of
Roque and Algeſiras, and the Apluxara mountains, mount Abyla,
e African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier,
reat part of the Barbary coaſt.

ITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſur-
ed by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about
000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe
aks are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and
ed, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The
es of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhow, con-

venieney being little conſidered: thus you wil
two or three large apartments of no uſe, in ord
room at the end where the family ſit. The
more like priſons than the habitations of peopl
windows, beſides having a balcony, being grated
cularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the
generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris
reigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings a
niards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into the
they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is th
viſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor
the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole
lace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of
cious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three cou
very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 fe
high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up
cence; the great audience-chamber eſpecially, wh
and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered
namented alſo with 12 looking-glaſſes made at S
ſeet high, and with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh
royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeat
ment for their kings. Some of them contain fine
ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces are the Buen
of all its beſt pictures and furniture), Caſa del Ca
St. Ildefonſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of A
dens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park
cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three,
extent. Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two d
trees; one double row on the right, and one on the
the ſhade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to
abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is
through which runs a ſtream of water. Between th
thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds; and
and wild-boars wander there at large, beſides number
pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of
Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into
The central point of this great park is the king's pala
ly ſurrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleaſ
fountains and ſtatues; and it alſo contains a vaſt v
beautiful flowers, both American and European. As
Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnific

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaſtere
no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſto
garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms
gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great re
called here *El Mar* (the ſea), which ſupplies the fountain
is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the m
water-works are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at
great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of
with a large iron paliſade. In the gardens are twenty-
the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many o
cellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens a
French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine

s the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaden . The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paint- the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo-relievos.
ride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial; and the natives ſay, with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any ace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable volume; and it is ſaid that Philip II. who was its founder, ex- upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number ows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 306; and the apart- decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other aces. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church, richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a col- a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts ich it is enriched. Above the ſhelves are paintings in freſco, elemi Carducho, the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred e hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences of which the ſhelves reſent to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is repre- bove the books which treat of theology; the death of Archi- at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to the ma- ics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, ks relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circum- in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, , that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the con- y, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain les written on them. The reaſon for this cuſtom is, that Arius as a learned Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library ed as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books and inſcribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him he moſt commodious method of arranging them; that he had ced his own method into the Eſcurial; and ſince his time, and ſake of uniformity, it had been followed with reſpect to the herwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds s and mechanics; noble walks, with extenſive parks and gar- eautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of . The mauſoleum, or burying place of the kings and queens in, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of ple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the of St. Peter's. It is thirty-ſix feet in diameter, incruſted with fine .
wing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums d on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and ful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſco- bad taſte upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, ſuffered on ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through ropal ornaments upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and ital habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſte- got, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the vic- e obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The ent where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The

building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. ' is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſi ferent ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-piec forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt, howeve pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh com iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſi Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded b Puntals. The entrance has never been of late Engliſh in their wars with Spain, becauſe of th chants have in the treaſures there, which they the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved rats in the night; the houſes lofty, with flat roo a turret for a view of the ſea. The population i inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and cathedral has been already 50 years building, an finiſhed. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; the ſ dirty, and but few of the public or private bui their architecture. The palaces of the inquiſiti are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral divided into ſeventeen aiſles by rows of colu and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver a-piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3,500l biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſe king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to M in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh cumference is five miles and a half. The ſubur as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in tures in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounte reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville i ing, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a mo man at the top, called La Giralda, which turns and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher t don; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion to York-miniſter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothi clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this c 1400, in the preſence of king Henry III. The try round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the c delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is ſaid place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, lighted and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained, in 1714,

deſerted both by England and the emperor, for whom
en up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to
0,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing
r the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them; on
ovember, the eve of All Souls, they run about from houſe
eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow,
r faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of pur-

is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The
crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houſes ill built and
moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of
ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000.
oprick is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l.
ear.

na is a large city, but has very few good ſtreets, and fewer
buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature
e of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare, ſouth-
town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the
n Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh
and 600 Barbary ſlaves, working at the pumps, to keep the
, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for
e Spaniards were ſent there deſerved indeed exemplary pu-

la ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra
e double ſummit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil.
ſent glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants;
are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade
50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful; the ſur-
ade up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The am-
for bull-feaſts is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain.
rons of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about
es from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with
quare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which
the outlets on the banks of the river, where there are great
of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect,
rly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure,
objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as
nitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the
The houſes are ſolid and lofty, the ſtreets well paved and
d the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be
t pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in

a is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and
commerce than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great
ce the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford
ſcious grapes which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine,
n England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and
s, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall,
enced by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle
oint of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are nar-
d the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral,
y Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London.
hop's income is 16,000l. ſterling.

the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yiel
conſequently the profits of merchants and their a
it not for the many fraudulent practices for eludi

At St. Ildefonſo the glaſs manufacture is car
perfection unknown in England. The largeſt
braſs frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and ſix d
tons. These are deſigned wholly for the royal
from the king. Yet even for ſuch purpoſes it i
a devouring monſter in a country where proviſio
and carriage exceedingly expenſive. Here is a
of linen, employing about 15 looms; by which
conſiderable loſer.

In the city of Valencia there is a very reſpect
which five thouſand looms, and three hundre
employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhab
rating thoſe who exerciſe profeſſions relative t
as perſons who prepare the wood and iron wor
of machines, or ſpin, wind, or dye the ſilk.
bourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcela
eſtabliſhed; and they very much excel in pai
their beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and
neſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are
beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of
bles, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and other
tions are performed with ſingular rapidity. Ti
becauſe they float on the ſurface of the water,
able to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt.
good mats for houſes, *alpargates*, or ſhort trow
ſants, and latterly it has been ſpun into fine th
making cloth. If properly encouraged, there i
nufacture may be brought to ſuch perfection, a
leſs ruſh a ſource of abundant wealth to the ſouth
for it is the peculiar and natural production of
vated mountains of the ſouth.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in S
royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne obſerves that it i
ble than that of the principal dock-yards and ma
cauſe, in combing the hemp, all the towy part
out, and made uſe of in caulking; whence reſu
of more ſolid cordage, and the better caulking o
tom in our rope yards, which the Spaniards ha
the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long
ſtate the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and th
apt to break after being uſed but a ſhort ſpace of

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp fr
ſent they are able to do without the aſſiſtance,
other nation The kingdom of Grenada alrea
the greateſt part of the hemp they uſe; and in c
have recourſe to Arragon and Navarre. All the
in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spaniſh
which is even, cloſe, and ſolid.

The moſt important production of this count
able article of commerce, is barilla, a ſpecies
burning a great variety of plants almoſt peculiar t

Murcia, ſuch as *ſoza*, *algazul*, *ſuzon*, *ſayennes*, *ſalicornia*, with It is uſed for making ſoap, for bleaching, and for glaſs. All s in Europe, by the combuſtion of various vegetable ſubſtances, e kind of pot-aſh; but the ſuperior excellence of the barilla to ſecured the preference. The country producing it is about ues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Me-n. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to nonies of both Mr. Townſend and M. de Bourgoanne) is about d and fifty quintals, moſt of which are ſent to France and Eng-d a ſmall quantity to Genoa and Venice.

is one of the richeſt countries in Europe in ſalt-petre, a moſt article of commerce. The account of this ſurpriſing manu-e ſhall abridge from Mr. Townſend. "I obſerved," ſays he, enclоſure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, diſtances from each other. Theſe were collected from the f the city of Madrid, and the ſcrapings of the highways. They ined all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and abroad the earth to the thickneſs of about one foot, whilſt ere turning what had been previouſly expoſed to the influence n and air. The preceding ſummer theſe heaps had been waſhed, g thus expoſed, would yield the ſame quantity of ſalt again; and, appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been no ſalt-petre can be obtained without a ſubſequent expoſure. this earth they can lixiviate once a year, ſome they have waſhed times in the laſt ſeven years, and ſome they have ſubjected to ration fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye ey may waſh it to advantage, and by their taſte if it has yielded m of a proper ſtrength; from which, by evaporating the water g, they obtain the ſalt-petre."

other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and re. Great efforts have been made by the government, to pre-other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of erican commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit try is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to heir American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and mer-. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the Eng-nch, Dutch, and other nations carry on this contraband trade, hem greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the ofits ſeldom amounting to leſs than twenty per cent. This evi-, makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches elong to the Spaniards, rather than any active European nation: his ſubject there will be occaſion to ſpeak in the account of a.

STITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper at-is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy ditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been ted whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, is demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at rtain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain ue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes, or parliaments of the kingdom
cially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileg
are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of t
diſcernible in the government, though all of
under the controul of the king.

The privy council, which is compoſed of a
grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to
digeſt papers for the cabinet council, or junto,
ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named
reſides the direction of all the executive part o
council of war takes cogniſance of military a
of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal in the king
of the royal audiences are thoſe of Galicia, S
naries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona.
all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpectiv
receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Be
ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the fina
of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms
delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, w
diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the In
Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecr
counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is
to America. The members are generally choſ
magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country.
ties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, th
to one perſon for more than three years; and
ficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spai
rica, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſu
Barbary, in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Laz
Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the kin
ly, amount to 5.000,000l. ſterling, though ſ
form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. I
is true, is immenſe; but it is generally, in a ma
ticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The k
ſilver mines that are worked, but little of it
He falls upon means, however, in case of a
gency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great pa
ſures belonging to his ſubjects; who never co
always punctually repaid with intereſt. The fi
tholic majeſty are in excellent order, and on a
himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his

As to the taxes whence the internal revenue
arbitrary, and ſo much ſuited to conveniency
at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of g
ber, and proviſions; the clergy and military ord

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The
of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than
war they amount, without prejudice to the kingd
great dependence of the king, however, is upon
guards. His preſent catholic majeſty has been at
to raiſe a powerful marine; and his fleet in Euro

ds seventy ships of the line. All along the coast of Spain are
ers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that
ix to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole king-
he soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

L ARMS, TITLES, NO- } Spain formerly comprehended twelve
TY, AND ORDERS. } kingdoms; all of which, with several
were, by name, entered into the royal titles, so that they
l in all to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occa-
continued, but the king is now generally contented with the
his Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by
ery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never
their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince
as, and their younger children of both sexes are, by way of
, called *infants* or *infantas*, that is, children.

morial bearing of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded
arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into
ters, of which the uppermost on the right hand and the lowest
t contain a castle, or, with three towers, for Castile: and in
most on the left, and the lowest on the right, are three lions,
Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

neral name for those Spanish nobility and gentry who are un-
ith the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into
dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles.
are created grandees may stand covered before the king, and
d with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended
the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors,
f the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both
and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear
efore the king.

Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in
s of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign
at the Spanish branch of it has many French and Italian no-
ere are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of
of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under
after; but the office of both was given, by Pope Alexander VI.
ings of Spain and Portugal as grand-masters in their re-
ominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only
en persons of noble families. The same may be said of the
of *Calatrava*," first instituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it
ame from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the
nd here began the order, which became very powerful. Their
influence, and possessions, were so considerable as to excite the
of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the
grand-master, were annexed, by pope Innocent VIII. The
" Order of *Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of
, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the
nd made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of
of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a
This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons
t and illustrious families. The " Order of the *Lady of Mercy*"
have been instituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the
, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary,
s captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of
rom the Moors, in which were expended large sums of money.

It was first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelo
men included in it. This order poſſeſſes conſidera
The "Order of *Montſa*" was inſtituted at Vale
the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templa
poſſeſſions. Their chief ſeat being the town of M
thence derived its name, and choſe St. George for
year 1771, the late king inſtituted, after his own
*Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of t
is a ſtar of eight points, enamelled white, and edg
centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin M
and blue. On the reverſe the letter C.C. with t
centre, and this motto. *Virtuti et Merito.* None
deſcent can belong to this order.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably firſt
from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or fro
it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibral
ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malag
the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of
an object of contention between thoſe powerful re
the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained i
the fall of that empire, when it became a prey t
beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Va
divided this kingdom among them; but in th
again became its maſters.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Sar
end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſe
doms of Aſia and Africa; and, not content wit
that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyria
empires, croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain
ſelves in the ſouthern provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spa
guiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (who were al
name of Moors, the greater part of them having c
and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the
animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms
kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many age
broiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their
and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line retained
near three hundred years. Learning flouriſhed i
of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbar
princes by degrees became weak and effeminate,
ſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars
overturned the throne of Cordova, and the m
Several petty principalities were formed on the ru
many cities of Spain had each an independent ſo
tuter was then entitled to the conqueſts he mad
Spain at laſt was divided into twelve or thirteen
the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared
count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw
Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of
Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about th
the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were
of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella
wards queen of Caſtile, who took Grenada, and

rs and Jews who would not be converts to the Christian faith, omber 170,000 families.

pulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain s, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards plorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand bella introduced the popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into minions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and

les V. of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, suc- to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive s of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, , from whence it drew immense treasures, began to alarm the of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of ; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back atholic church. He also reduced the power of the nobles in bridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the rerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came solution that filled all Europe with astonishment, withdrawing entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in hat he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and :*.

nies, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual f 100,000 crowns; and chose, for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of ratent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded by rising grounds covered trees. He gave strict orders that the style of the building which he erected ld be such as suited his present situation, rather than his former dignity. It only of six rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked the other two, each twenty feet square, were hung with brown cloth, ed in the most simple manner: they were all level with the ground, with one side into a garden, of which Charles himself had given the plan, and with various plants, which he proposed to cultivate with his own hands. ding some time in the city of Ghent, in Flanders, the place of his nativity, for Zeland, in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accom- his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an af- and last farewell of Philip and his attendants, he set out, on the 17th of , 1556, under a convoy of a large fleet of Spanish, Flemish, and English ships. he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground; and considering him- s dead to the world, he kissed the earth and said, "Naked came I out of 's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of man- me of the Spanish nobility paid their court to him as he passed along to the s retreat; but they were so few in number, and their attendance was so , that Charles observed it, and felt, for the first time, that he was no longer h. But he was more deeply affected with his son's ingratitude; who, for- eady how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ks on the road before he paid him the first moiety of that small portion s all that he had reserved of so many kingdoms. At last the money was Charles, having dismissed a great number of his domestics, whose attend- thought would be superfluous, entered into his humble retreat with twelve mly. Here he buried in solitude and silence his grandeur, his ambition, th all those vast projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and urope, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and of being subjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more com- fact on than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any political transactions of the princes of Europe, he restrained his curiosity any inquiry concerning them; and he seemed to view the busy scene had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference arising from his experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflections of having d himself from its cares.

Agreeably to this determination he resigned Sp
lands, with great formality, in the presence of his
his son, Philip II. but could not prevail on the pri
elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on
brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of
into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions
New World, the Netherlands, and some Italian
the elder branch, whilst the empire, Hungary, and
lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with fe
ties. He was austere, haughty, immoderately amb
his whole life, a cruel bigot in the cause of popery.
queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like
cessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentm
wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutio
tries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces,
of his reign, have been already mentioned in
countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That king
verned by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to
year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army,
just, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors
the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own
the Braganza family, of Portugal, asserted a prior
sition, Spain became possessed of the Portuguese
some of which she still holds.

The descendants of Philip proved to be very wea
and his father had so totally ruined the ancient lib
they reigned almost unmolested in their own dom
roys, however, were at once so tyrannical and inso
guese, that, in the reign of Philip IV. in the year
that nation, by a well conducted conspiracy, expel
placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of J
throne; and ever since Portugal has been a di
Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, fail
Charles II. who left no issue. Philip, duke of Anj
dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV.
in virtue of his predecessor's will, by the name of
After a long and bloody struggle with the German
of Austria, supported by England, he was confirme
conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of U

New amusements and new objects now occupied his mind
the plants in his garden with his own hands; sometimes he
ing wood on a little horse, the only one that he kept, attend
foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment,
gentlemen who resided in the neighbourhood, and entertain
table; or he employed himself in studying the principle
works of mechanism; of which he had always been remark
cularly curious with regard to the construction of clocks
found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two
he reflected, it is said, with a mixture of surprise and
in having bestowed so much time and labour on the more vain
kind to a precise uniformity of sentiment concerning the int
tituies of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, h
which carried him off, in the 59th year of age.

4

is XIV. through a masterly train of politics (for, in his wars to
his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined)
ished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain,
its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of
to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded
, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians rea-
knowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of
perialists.

r a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambi-
his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was suc-
by his son Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who re-
many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and pros-
of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melan-
or the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother,
III. then king of Naples and the two Sicilies, son to Philip V. by
e, the princess of Parma.

was so warmly attached to the family compact of the house of
n, that, two years after his accession, he even hazarded his Ame-
ominions to support it. War being declared between him and
d, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havan-
the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress
navigation of the Spanish plate-fleets. Notwithstanding the suc-
of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude
e, in consequence of which Havannah was restored to Spain. In
, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish mi-
which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which
ted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieu-
-general conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to
tward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back,
liged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers kill-
d 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wound-
n the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks
Algiers by sea, but after spending much ammunition, and losing
lives, were forced to retire without doing much injury.

en the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had sub-
for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the
of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against
Britain. The Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea
nd; it having been always a great mortification to them that this
s should be possessed by the English. The grand attack was on
3th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de
n, by ten battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burthen, carry-
all 212 brass guns, entirely new, and discharging shot of 26
s weight. The showers of shot and shells which were directed
them, from their land-batteries, and, on the other hand, from the
s works of the garrison, exhibited a scene, of which perhaps
r the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is suffi-
to say, that *four hundred pieces* of the heaviest artillery were play-
t the same moment: an instance which has scarcely occurred
y siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruc-

e irresistible impression of the numerous red-hot balls from the gar-
was soon conspicuous; for, in the afternoon, smoke was per-
d to issue from the admiral's ship and another, and by one in the
ing several were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown

up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs
hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortre
trifling operations continued on the ſide of the
ration of peace in 1783.

In other enterpriſes, however, the Spaniards
The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them
1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days.
of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of
16,000, under the command of the duke de Cril
mander at firſt attempted to corrupt the gove
but this being rejected with indignation, the f
form; and the garriſon would have ſhowed then
with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible
ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its a
them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they
ſurrender in ſpite of every effort of human f
ſenſible were both parties that this was the true
general allowed them to march out with their
beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſo
teſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God
niards.

His late catholic majeſty did all he could to ob
from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carri
that it occaſioned ſuch a dangerous inſurrection
him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Sq
ing an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpot
paying ſome attention to the inclinations of thei

The government of Spain teſtified much unea
volution, and watched narrowly thoſe who ſpoke
ciples. The circulation of all public papers
from France was ſeverely prohibited. The proc
and knive-grinders introducing ſeditious papers
the reſcript concerning ſtrangers, ſhow all the
ſame time, the old age of deſpotiſm. If dotag
theſe ſymptoms are very apparent in this gover
revolution in Spain would be a matter of far
philoſopher than that of France; for its miſeries a
ſcience, and true religion, were confined in Fran
are trampled under the brutal feet of monks and

A ſhort war aroſe between the Spaniards an
rocco. The emperor beſieged Ceuta, but peace i
unjuſtly ſurmiſed that this war was entered into
attention of the people, who might be impre
France; but the reign of ignorance and bigotry
in Spain, that many years may elapſe before a
formed in that unhappy kingdom. In France
by innumerable writings; but it is believed that
exiſts in the Spaniſh language, which diſplays any
of government.

The ſudden diſmiſſion of count Florida Blanca
miniſter originated in cauſes not diſcloſed. It
court found this ſtep neceſſary, to appeaſe the pu
late meaſures, particularly the edict concerning
tributed to impoſe farther fetters upon commerce,
been repealed. On the 28th of February, 179

and count d'Aranda, an old ſtateſman, a warm friend of the nd nobility of France, ſucceeded to his employments, till ſome rrangement could be formed. It is ſaid, he aboliſhed the ſuper- nt tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquiſition; and in other meaſures appeared to ſee the real intereſt of monarchs, which is nly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the deſpair of the from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but ſhort; as been ſucceeded by that of the duke d'Alcudia.

e irregularities committed in France, the indecent reception of the ne interference of the court of Spain in favour of the king, and duſtry of the confederated ſovereigns, induced the court of Spain lare war againſt France on the 23d of March 1793. The iſſue s war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French ic on the 23d of July 1795, and the ſubſequent hoſtilities with nd, have already been mentioned in our hiſtorical accounts of thoſe ries.

rles IV. king of Spain, born Nov. 11. 1748, aſcended the throne 13, 1788, (upon the death of his father, Charles III.) and was ed to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by h he has iſſue,

Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
Mary-Louiſa, born July 9, 1777.
Philip, born Aug. 10, 1783.
Ferdinand, born Oct. 14, 1784.
Maria-Iſabella, born July 6, 1789.

Brothers to the king:

Ferdinand, the preſent king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, ied, in 1768, to the arch-ducheſs Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to h II. late emperor of Germany.
Anthony-Paſcal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

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# PORTUGAL.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 300 | between | 37 and 42 | North latitude. |
| Breadth | 100 | between | 7 and 10 | Weſt longitude. |

Containing 32,000 ſquare miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

NDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

NCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome d harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called he Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally di- d into three parts; the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces. e provinces are ſix in number,

| | Provinces. | Chief |
|---|---|---|
| The northern diviſion contains | Entre Douro e Minho - - - | Oporto, Vi |
| | Tras os Montes | Miranda, B<br>Villa Real |
| The middle diviſion contains | Beira - - - - | Coimbra,<br>Caſtel Rod |
| | Eſtremadura - - | Lisbon<br>Leiria St. U |
| The ſouthern diviſion contains | Alentejo - - | Evora, Elva<br>Portalegre |
| | Algarve - - - - | Faro, Lagos<br>Silves |

Soil, air, and productions.] The ſoil of neral equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially import from other countries. Their fruits are the not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, w are eſteemed to be very friendly to the human con drink *.

Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petr cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſum not ſo ſcorching as that of Spain, but refreſhed from

Mountains.] The face of Portugal is mountain for the mountains are generally barren: the chief vide Algarve from Alentejo; thoſe of Tras os Mo Montejunto in Eſtremadura; Eſtrella in Beira; Oſ Cintra, about five leagues ſouth-weſt of Liſbon, we tors as being the moſt weſterly part of all Europe. to it, at the mouth of the Tajo, is called the roc rock of Liſbon.

Water and rivers.] Though every brook in a river, yet the chief Portugueſe rivers are mention them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus brated for it golden ſand. The Minho and Dou daries of the province Entre Douro e Minho. Portu roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbe eſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; fo about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſana baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather provi

Promontories and bays.] The promonteries are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mo at the north entrance of the River Tajo; and Cape E entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, point of Algarve. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, o Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarve.

Animals.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal cellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable

* The Port-wines are made in the diſtricts round Oporto, w one half the quantity that is conſumed, under that name, in ly. The merchants in this city have very ſpacious wine-va 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported

e, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their though ſlight, are lively.

ULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains two millions or two millions and a half of inhabitants. The number rtugueſe in all the colonies appertaining to the crown are eſtiat about nine hundred thouſand. By a ſurvey made in the year there were in that kingdom 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay s (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium), beſides 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

e modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, deted in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill ning among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Porſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy ently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and nactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. chery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and e all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more , than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the lſion of the Jeſuits, and diminution of the papal influence among ; but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to mercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour heir gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

he Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, ſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate; only the quality affect to be gaily and richly dreſſed. The Portugueſe ladies are thin, and ſmall ature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, leſt and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much awkdneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants, a ho-, that, in other countries, is paid only to royal perſonages. The furre of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to ſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they r diſcharge any who ſurvive after ſerving their anceſtors. The er ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of Moors, ſit always croſs legged on the ground. The Portugueſe peaſs have never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, of the fine and vaſt countries the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in ica or in the Eaſt; or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South Ame-. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundcod-fiſh; but this is a regale he dares ſeldom aſpire to. A piece of ad made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlic, give that bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh; and if he can a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf, he himſelf fattens, to regale wretched family at Chriſtmas or Eaſter, he has reached the pinna

of happineſs in this world; and indeed whatever this habitual penury, according to the preſent ſtate intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or r ingly part with it, being taught by his numberleſ with which his country ſwarms, to look forward fo to another ſtate of exiſtence, to which they are the guides and conductors.

To theſe remarks we ſhall ſubjoin thoſe of Mr. veller in Portugal:—"The common people of Lis are a laborious and hardy race. It is painful to ſee obliged to take for want of proper implements to Their cars have the rude appearance of the earlieſt are ſlowly drawn by two ſtout oxen. The corn is ing of the ſame animals. They have many other appear very ſingular; for example, women ſit with the horſe's head when they ride. A poſtillion rides tailor ſits at his work like a ſhoemaker. A hair-dr days with a ſword, a cockade, and two watches, chains. A tavern is known by a vine-buſh, a houſ of blank paper, the door of an accoucheur by a wh by his extra-catholic devotion.—A Portugueſe pe with a ſuperior, an aged perſon, or a ſtranger, with right hand ſide, as a mark of reſpect. He never being without taking off his hat, and ſaluting him *Lord preſerve you for many years!* In ſpeaking of always ſays—'I die with impatience to ſee him.'— their country is the bleſſed Elyſium, and that Liſbo in the world."

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portug ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch; pended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarr the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficul ligious ſtate of that country: all we know is, that th greatly increaſed at the expenſe of the religious inſt dom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap fo crown.

Archbishoprics and bishoprics.] The archb Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has te the ſecond, two; and the laſt, ten, including thoſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is g and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

Language.] The Portugueſe language differs b Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter run *que eſtas nos ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha feita a tua votade, aſſi nos ceos, como na terra. O dano lo oci neſtro dia. E perdoa nos as noſſas devidas, a os noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentaça mal.* Amen.

Learning and learned men.] Theſe are ſ mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Po who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some e weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw the this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſall

not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. eſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more wledge with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, haps any other European nation, about the middle of the 16th , and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great ter and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected, poetical

VERSITIES.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291, by king Den- d which had fifty profeſſors; but it has lately been put under new regulations; Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of les at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated in every of polite learning and the ſciences. All the books that did be- the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here a military and marine academy, where young gentlemen are edu- the ſcience of engineering and naval tactics.

IOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already ned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the h taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at ra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of San- are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and mo- near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inex- ly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of ral rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the fineſt cheſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly ght with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt, not the moſt valuable, diamond in the world. It was found in

IEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal. Of the population city (ſays Mr. Murphy) no exact account has been recently pub- and the rapid increaſe of its inhabitants of late years muſt ren- y calculation of that kind very uncertain. In the year 1774, the pariſhes into which Liſbon is divided were found to contain 4 houſes; and in the year 1790, they amounted to 38,102. Hence ars to have increaſed 4,338 houſes in the courſe of theſe ten years. if we eſtimate each houſe on an average at ſix perſons, which, s is within the truth, the population in the year 1790 was 12. To theſe are to be added the religious of both ſexes, with ttendants, who dwell in convents and monaſteries, the ſoldiery, oſſors and ſtudents of ſeminaries of education, and ſuch of the an labourers as have no fixed dwelling; their aggregate amount, information be correct, is not very ſhort of 12,000. According ſtatement, therefore, the population of Liſbon exceeds 240,000. the magnitude of the city, indeed, we ſhould be induced to ſup- hat its population was conſiderably more than above ſtated; for it puted to be four miles long, by one and a half broad; but many houſes have large gardens; and ſuch as have not, are, in general, ut upon a large ſcale, on account of the heat of the climate.

e fatal effects of the earthquake in 1755 are ſtill viſible in many of the city, and never fail to impreſs every ſpectator with an awful nbrance of that diſaſter; according to the moſt accurate accounts, were not leſs than 24,000 victims to it. The Portugueſe have, ver, availed themſelves of this misfortune, and, like the Engliſh the deſtructive fire of 1666, have turned the temporal evil into a

permanent good. All the new ſtreets erected i
the old, are capacious, regular, and well pave
paths for paſſengers, as in the ſtreets of Lond
neſs, Liſbon is no longer ſo much a ſubject of a
as formerly; but all is not yet done, as it ſtill wa
water, and privies. Liſbon is deſervedly acco
Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. Th
ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any
ſea by forts, though they would make but a
of war. The ſecond city in this kingdom is O
to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief ar
city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſho
The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtre
and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hu
poſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families re
concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The
have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The
many new companies and regulations, whic
again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, a
privileges which the Britiſh merchants former
ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt,
their own materials, for foreign manufacture
linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen, with
and are excellent in preſerving and candying f
Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves c
her, as the European nations trading with her
tions of her colonies, as well as her own native c
diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red-wo
the drugs of Braſil, her ivory, ebony, ſpices, a
Eaſt India, in exchange for the almoſt numb
the vaſt quantity of corn and ſalt fiſh, ſupplied
tions, and by the Engliſh North American colo

The Portugueſe foreign ſettlements are, how
menſe value, but vaſtly improvable. Theſe are
Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring
tions on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, and li
facturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, an
ſettlements.

What the value of theſe latter may be, is unk
ſelves; but they certainly abound in all the pr
mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities
Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that th
ſent from Braſil amounts annually to 600,000l. ſt
the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping t
chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave-trade,
with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt Indie
ſeſſions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The c
ſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearan
conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or ſta
parliaments of clergy, nobility, and commons.
right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of n
real power they have, is, that their aſſent is neceſ

h regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to pre-
ture diſputes on that account.

overnment may be fairly pronounced the moſt deſpotic in Eu-
he eſtabliſhed law is generally a dead letter, excepting where
s are carried into execution by the ſupplementary mandates of
eign, which are generally employed in defeating the purpoſes of
l protection; which law is calculated to extend equally over all
cts.

eople here have no more ſhare in the direction of government,
ng of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce,
have in the government of Ruſſia, or China. The far greater
w nothing of what is done in that reſpect. Every man has
alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in what-
ms himſelf, to the decrees and laws of the deſpot, as pro-
from time to time by his ſecretaries of ſtate. How would an
an, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading
able of every new law publiſhed here! and which runs thus:
*king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and
and of my full, ſupreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of
d for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do, in conſe-
rder and command, &c. &c.*"

reat preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in
cil of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy
ility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all
affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of
ce is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa
plicaçio is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought.
s of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and
civil law for their foundation.

SUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above
00 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on
ported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the
eſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſh-
uſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inha-
will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign
diſe pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fiſh from
nland twenty-five per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring
rivers pays twenty-ſeven per cent. and the tax upon lands, and
at are ſold, is ten per cent. The king derives a conſiderable
from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-
The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of
l, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences, and li-
o eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now
increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious
nd inſtitutions.

ITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government
depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for
ears, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the ſame
connection between Great Britain and Portugal does not at pre-
ſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual
ce from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards,
ſt Faithful Majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable
troops who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers; bu
at period, the army has been again neglected, no proper en-
ement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to

the diſcipline of the troops, ſo that the milita
again inconſiderable, amounting, it is ſaid, t
force of this kingdom is computed at thirteen
frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's
and the Algarves, on this and on the other
Lord of Guinea, and of the conqueſt, navigat
opia, Arabia, Perſia, and Brazil. John V.
pope, with the title of his Moſt Faithful Maj
apparent is Prince of Brazil; and that of hi
The reſt of the princes of the blood royal are

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five
croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſant
wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. T
charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chie
—The ſupporters are two winged dragons, a
under the two flanches, and the baſe of the
it; two croſſes, the firſt fleur de-lis, vert,
Aviez, and the ſecond patée, gules, for the
is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one
words, *pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King ar

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and
are much the ſame as thoſe of Spain. The
three; 1. That of *Avis* or *Aviez*, firſt inſti
quez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147,
order, on account of his taking Evora from th
ſubject to the order of Calatrava, in Spain;
tugal ſeized the crown, he made it again in
der of St. *James*," inſtituted by Dennis I, ki
1310, ſuppoſing that under that ſaint's prote
over the Moors; and he endowed it with gre
profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, a
they prove the gentility of their blood. The
habit white, and their principal convent is at
der of *Chriſt*" was inſtituted in the year 131
gal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him m
Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſio
maſter, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. co
III. and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Port
ſmall commanderies and revenues annexed
eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*" has likewiſe
in Portugal.

HISTORY of PORTUGAL.] This kingdom
part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the
Spaniſh provinces, in the conteſts between the C
and in the decline and fall of the Roman emp
ſubjection to the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, an
century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and
grandſon of Robert, king of France, for h
againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and tha
the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucc
ſus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a
Mooriſh kings, in July, 1139. This victory
monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was th
ſoldiers. He reigned forty-ſix years, and wa

of learning.—His deſcendents maintained themſelves on the
ſome centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his do-
for cowardice, in the year 1240.
I. or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his country*: he built
ilt forty four cities and towns in Portugal, founded the mili-
er of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned for-
ears.—Under his ſucceſſor, Alphonſus IV. happened ſeveral
es at Liſbon, which threw down part of the city, and deſtroyed
ves. John I. was illuſtrious for his courage, prudence, and
s in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered, in 1420,
Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years,
the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V. about 1480, the
ese diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſuc-
John II. they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the
of Moni-Congo, ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa,
and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceed-
in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out
new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama, under him, cruiſed along
of Africa and Ethiopia; and landed in Hindooſtan; and in the
00, Alvarez diſcovered Brazil.
III. ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African
ons, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous
as a miſſionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, eſta-
that infernal tribunal, the Inquiſition, in Portugal, anno 1526,
the entreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian, his
n, ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the
in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Mo-
on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either
drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate
n, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue,
year 1580: on which, Antony, prior of Crato, was choſen
by the ſtates of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has
ſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown
d to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt daughter of Ema-
nd ſent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who ſubdued
ntry, and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal the 12th of
ber, 1580.
viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III. and
IV. behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and vio-
The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and by
ated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, ſo excited the hatred and
of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the firſt of
ber, 1640. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the
ate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne
title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed; and the foreign ſet-
h alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſub-
d many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of
ſiards to re-unite them proved vain, ſo that a treaty was con-
in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free
ependent.
Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their re-
m Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with
d and Holland; and, upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of
, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed
e crown of Spain to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom.

Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of P
misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and h
they, uniting their intereſts, not only forced A
crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pop
which was actually conſummated. They had a
by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of wh
ceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal.
joined the grand confederacy formed by king W
them were of much ſervice in humbling the pow
contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioni
tle of Almanza, in 1707.—John died in 1750,
his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to
for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755,
pital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. I
ſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection tha
or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It w
domeſtic blood, and rendered odious by exceſſiv
In September, 1758, the king was attacked by
eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his
lem. The families of Aveira and Tavora were d
conſequence of an accuſation being exhibited a
conſpired againſt the king's life. But they wer
proper evidence, and their innocence has been
clared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is date
Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at th
from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. Th
who was at this time the prime miniſter of P
kingdom for many years with a moſt unbounded
appears to have been ſometimes directed to the m
purpoſes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain
niards, and their allies, the French, attempted
Majeſty into their alliance, and offered to garriſ
the Engliſh, with their troops. The king of Po
poſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, w
entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, wh
threatened it from another quarter. Some have
of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion,
of the pretended war was not concerted to force
with France and Spain, in conſideration of the a
tugal. It is certain, that both the French and Sp
war in a very dilatory manner, and that, had the
might have been maſters of Liſbon, long befo
Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugu
Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their c
the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved
cluded at Fontainbleau, in 1763. Notwithſtan
vice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugue
ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever
not be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with
moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretenc
by the Portugueſe miniſters, for cramping the
priving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his e
ried, by diſpenſation from the pope, to don Pe

the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daugh- preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was ioval from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be ex- from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration: it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry pub- ſures which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Por-

the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Braſil, as preſumptive heir crown, publiſhed an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her y ſituation, was incapable of managing the affairs of govern- he would place his ſignature to public papers, till the return of lth; and that no other change ſhould be made in the forms.

ugal, as the ally of England, has taken a feeble part in the war France; but her exertions were confined to furniſhing Spain few auxiliary troops, and ſending a ſmall ſquadron to join the fleet. In Auguſt 1797, however, a negotiation for a treaty of between France and Portugal was entered into, and the treaty ac- concluded; but the French directory refuſed to ratify it, alleging e queen of Portugal, ſo far from ſhowing a diſpoſition to abide by icles, had put her forts and principal ports into the poſſeſſion of nglish. Since the failure of this attempt at negotiation, Portugal ntinued a member of the alliance againſt France; though her as been very unimportant, conſiſting only of a ſmall ſquadron, has cruiſed in the Mediterranean, and aſſiſted in the blockade of

queen is diſordered by religious melancholy; Dr. Willis, at the of the prince, ſome time ſince, made a voyage to Liſbon to at- her cure; but her recovery remaining hopeleſs, the government country reſts with the prince of Braſil.

ia-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born December 17, 1734; d, June 6, 1760, to her uncle don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. born , 1717, who died May 25, 1786; began to reign February 24,

Their iſſue.

n-Maria-Joſeph-Louis, born May 13, 1767; married, March 20, Maria-Louiſa, of Spain, born July 9, 1177.

The iſſue by the late king.

Her preſent majeſty.

Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born October 8, 1736.

Maria-Franciſca-Bendicta, born July 24, 1746; married, in 1776, nephew, the prince of Braſil, who died September 11, 1788.

# ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTE

| Miles. | | Degrees |
|---|---|---|
| Length 600 / Breadth 400 | between | 38 and 4 / 7 and 1 |

Containing 116,967 ſquare miles with 170

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to dimenſions; for, according to ſome accounts, of Switzerland, to the extremity of the kir 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers o thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Veni breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the bou wards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of V on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which di Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comp dinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are div following table:

| ITALY. COUNTRIES' NAMES. | | Square Miles. | Length. | Breadth. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| To the KING of SARDINIA. | Piedmont | 6619 | 140 | 9 |
| | Monteſerrat | 446 | 40 | 2 |
| | Aleſſandrine | 204 | 27 | 2 |
| | Oneglia | 132 | 24 | |
| | Sardinia I. | 6600 | 135 | 5 |
| To the KING of NAPLES. | Naples | 22,000 | 275 | 100 |
| | Sicily I. | 9400 | 180 | 9 |
| To the EMPEROR. | Milan | 5431 | 155 | 7 |
| | Mantua | 700 | 47 | 2 |
| | Mirandola | 120 | 19 | 1 |
| | POPE's dominions. | 14 348 | 235 | 14 |
| To their reſpective princes. | Tuſcany | 6640 | 115 | 9 |
| | Maſſa | 82 | 16 | 1 |
| | Modena | 2560 | 65 | 3 |
| | Parma | 1225 | 48 | 3 |
| | Piombino | 100 | 22 | 1 |
| | Monaco | 24 | 12 | |
| Republics. | Lucca | 286 | 28 | 1 |
| | St. Marino | 8 | | |
| | Genoa | 2400 | 160 | 5 |
| To the EMPEROR. | Venice | 8434 | 175 | 9 |
| | Iſtria | 1245 | 6 | 3 |
| | Dalmatia P. | 1400 | 135 | 2 |
| To FRANCE * | Savoy | 3572 | 87 | 6 |
| | Corſica I. | 1520 | 90 | 3 |
| | Iſles of Dalmatia | 1364 | | |
| | Cephalonia | 428 | 40 | 1 |
| | Corfu, or Corcyra | 194 | 31 | 1 |
| | Zant, or Zacynthus | 120 | 23 | 1 |
| | St. Maura | 56 | 12 | |
| | Little Cephalonia (Ithaca olim) | 14 | 7 | |
| | Total | 97,672 | | |

* Several of the late Venetian iſlands have ſince bee Ruſſian fleets.

AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excel- d commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the eral productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the in- ts; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might t to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their rce. There is here a great variety of air: and ſome parts of ear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes n the face of nature; for the Campana di Roma, where the an- omans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their ourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places with ſnow in winter. The Apennines, which are a ridge of ins that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on ate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north d temperate. The ſea breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwith- g its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be be dry and pure.

OUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Apennines, form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount ius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

VERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the , the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the f Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary be- Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

lakes of Italy are the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſeo, and Garda, north; the Perugia, or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Ce- in the middle.

AS, GULFS, OR BAYS, CAPES, MONTORIES, AND STRAITS.] Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman au- nor the hiſtory or geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas ly are the gulph of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, ny, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, One- Finale, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, a Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Reggio, Squilace, nto, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Spartaventa, del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the ſtrait of Meſ- between Italy and Sicily.

e gulphs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſ- alada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; he ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of ari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, ſe, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, ro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto one, in the iſland of Elba.

ETALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound with mineral gs; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeate, and cinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that pro- great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few

places: and a mill for forging and fabricating the
near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain m
lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now
rious crystals and coral are found on the coast of
marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions o

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } Besides th
ductions men
ticle of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such qu
cherries, plums and other fruits, that they are of litt
prietors.

There is little difference between the animal p
either by land or sea, and those of France and Ger
tioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Author
on the h
lation. This may be owing, in a great measure, to
every Italian has for the honour of his own provinc
the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300
Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000
proportionably populous. As to the other province
phers and travellers have paid very little attention
natives that live in the country, and inform us by
those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts
Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Plin
14,000,000 of inhabitants. It seems probable that
ants exceed that number. The Campagna di Rom
the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in
but we are to consider that the princes and states of It
agriculture and manufactures of all kinds; which
motes population; so that it may not, perhaps, be
assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some
exceed that number *. The Italians are generally wel
have such meaning in their looks, that they have
ideas of their painters. The women are well shaped,
The marriage-ties, especially of the better sort, are
little value in Italy. Every wife has been represente
lant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and
with very little ceremony, and no offence on either si
tice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed
which have been made of this kind by travellers,
much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life
of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit ver
public government. With great taciturnity, they dis
flection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and
than devout. The middling ranks are attached to the
and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fo
fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to
and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant
at a very small expense. Though perhaps all Ital
many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the
speak of themselves as successors of the conquerors o
look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

* Mr. Swinburne says, that in 1779, the number of the inhab
of Naples amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and nav

dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbour-
untries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility
e ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly
in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied
e Italians excel in the fine arts: though they make at preſent but
inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy
muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when
: to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.
e Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion
impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other
. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away
ſuitable marriages, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours,
miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined
and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed
The Italian courteſans, or *bona-robas*, as they are called, make
d of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming,
races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief
ions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they
mpous beyond all other nations.
modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a
unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living.
what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never ima-
half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Ita-
nſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice,
, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good ac-
modations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other
No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a mattraſs of ſtraw and
o that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp:
covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of
kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedſtead conſiſts of
wooden forms or benches. An Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in
manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There
by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the
are bare, and the floor has never yet been waſhed ſince it was firſt
One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here, is, that men, and not
n, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-ſer-
, if ſuffered. They never ſcower their pewter; their knives are of
ame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up
nes as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of
ſwimming in it: a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters;
of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your
al) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage:
ſter fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or
key, roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and
are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſts into as many filaments as
can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little
of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable
ſh that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad;
the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within
reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any
he above recited, are the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and
which infeſt us by day and night.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The
uſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions
unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their wor-

ſhip. In the Introduction, we have given an account
eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſprea
likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline.
government of the papacy has employed many volume
The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs,
that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are
pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian
chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was on
France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promo
lates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf a
mination of the princes who profeſs that religion. H
the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relat
the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can
conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to controul the pope, i
ritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known
reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being gen
the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene
principally endeavour to diſplay their abilities, and wh
tions paſs very inconſiſtent with their pretended inſpir
Ghoſt. During the election of a pope, in 1721, the
high, that they came to blows with both their hands a
the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give a
creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to
contains the principal points wherein the church of
the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief
other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agree
follows:

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical
traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe
church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true
tation of them; and I will interpret them according
conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacra
truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chr
neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all
one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penan
tion, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer g
theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be
ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received a
of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration
ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing
fined and declared by the holy council of Trent * conc
and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered
proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the
the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly,
ſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul a
Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made

* A convocation of Roman catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, b
who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, ſum
to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppr
pleaſed to term the riſing hereſies in the church.

of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls tranſubſtan-n. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt a true ſacrament is taken and received.

I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt o be worſhipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer up prayers God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

I do moſt firmly aſſert that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed in the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and re-d, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto .

I do likewiſe affirm that the power of indulgences was left by ſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to ſtian people.

I do acknowledge the holy catholic and apoſtolical Roman church e the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and r true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, rince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have n delivered, defined, and declared, by the ſacred canons and œcu-nical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all er things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and thematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathe-iſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhopries in Italy, the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for reader to depend upon; the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he ſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmooth-, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. ground work of it is Latin, and is eaſily maſtered by a good claſ-ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtyle writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctifi-to il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunià ſia fatta ſicome in coſi anche in terra: dacci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i i debita, ſicome noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocche tuo è il regno, e la potenza, gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence rely, deſcribes it as follows: "I had occaſion," ſays he, "to ſee a proceſſion, e all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are ſed every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of peni-s in ſack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and ing the litanies; but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, reat quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair friz'led curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard has been paid to the ge of our Saviour on the croſs: but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt."

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] riſed ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has dern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſom in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrat own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural phil Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral o is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the coun celebrated father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicci and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtoria admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtori cal writer. His comedies have much merit: and t ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thou pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very na and manners, but his productions are too licentious. both in Latin and Italian, revived among the mod genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian po and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are fa a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, thoug excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great re dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſto and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſel correctneſs, and ſpirit, of their Latin poetry, many o not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and m valled, not only in their numbers, but their excellenci learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the T likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and be colouring. Raphael from his own ideas, aſſiſted by out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands a art of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarotti united painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring haps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, an lians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amaz Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, a equalled in their ſeveral manners. The fame may and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot extraordinary genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venic tua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the all that is ſtu beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A librar deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and cur nor do the bounds of this work admit only of a v of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for a lence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies ing magnificence. There are at Rome conſiderable

* Piſa has forty ſix profeſſors.

was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the ſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſ- in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing y-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its propor- are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at vari- times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, in its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to plete its ruin. Cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c; and, with infinite pains labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of mar- which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphi- tre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the teſt care, at the expenſe of the inhabitants. They frequently give ie ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe-races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are likewiſe viſible in other es. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and ſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins he baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at preſent converted a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly d the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which w remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which an- ly contained the ſtatues of the heathen deities. The outſide of the ding is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no win- s, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very t in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and phyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, fall- down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonnade in front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet , excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle k, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed bout aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with umns forty eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle e of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large que vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is ountain with an antique of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and tonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with in- ctive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the deva- ions of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column ſted by Duillius in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the mans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving k to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtrokes of light- g, mentioned by Cicero; the original braſs plates containing the s of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, e of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention

medals, and the infinite variety of seals and eng
abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palace
furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the time
the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the
second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are
entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, b
present themselves all over Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as
above ground: such are the cloacæ, and the catacc
for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and
above 50 years since a painter's apprentice discovere
Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples,
indifferent are the country people of Italy about
that it was a new discovery to the learned. An i
curiosities exists in the ruins of Herculaneum, a
Naples and Vesuvius, which, in the reign of Nero,
by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year o
overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius.
its course filled up the streets and houses in some pla
sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in
and ten feet. This lava is now of a consistency w
tremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it
minous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, me
sandy substances, which altogether form a close and
revolution of so many ages, the spot it stood upon w
but in the year 1713, upon digging into these parts,
unfortunate city were discovered, and many antiqu
but the search was afterwards discontinued, till t
the king of Naples employed men to dig perpen
deep, whereupon not only the city made its appe
bed of the river which ran through it. The temple
disclosed, and the whole of the theatre. In the
statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated th
trance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt cha
horses of the same metal, likewise gilt; this had b
principal door of entrance. There were likewise fo
of this city, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, pa
furniture, and various utensils. The streets of the
been quite straight and regular, the houses well bui
some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with
again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thi
the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with th
prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from ef
the richest effects: for when the excavations were
more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little gol
stones.

The town of Pompeii was destroyed by the same
Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herc
not discovered till near forty years after the discove
One street, and a few detached buildings of this town
the street is well paved with the same kind of stone
roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised a
each side for conveniency of foot passengers. D
that the street itself is not so broad as the narrowest

is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces
eels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are
, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the
is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms
rnamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome
al. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown
hem, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are
on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage,
h is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet,
a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhowing the goods
e greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular
ding, with a colonnade towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of
Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance
this, is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of
, fluted like thoſe of the guard-room; but there is nothing very
nificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings hi-
o found at Pompeii, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut
of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in
ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes. In
partment (ſays Mr. Sutherland), we ſaw the ſkeletons of 17 poor
ches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many
t bodies were found, ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly
w that they were endeavouring to eſcape when the eruption overtook
m.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as numerous as
emains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with
hat is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and
n of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St.
r at Rome is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that
perhaps exiſted; and, when examined by the rules of art, it may
rmed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond
gination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its
ſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo nu-
ous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles
ant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are re-
kable for their fiery eruptions. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius
ards the ſea, is every-where planted with vines and fruit trees, and
equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords
ightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The ſouth
weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being like
top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount
uvius has been computed to be 3,900 feet above the ſurface of the
It has been a volcano, beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition.
animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the
unger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to
year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate; then, how-
r, it broke out with accumulated fury, and deſolated miles around.
1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when
ning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell
hirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of liquid lava ran down like
ver for three miles diſtance, carrying every thing before it which lay
s way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities
cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at
n-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned

to be the 27th from that which deſtroyed Hercula
Titus. In this eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſm
down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreet
umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to gu
them. The tops of the houſes and the balconie
theſe cinders; and the ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues f
vered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the
happened alſo in 1766, another in 1779, which
deſcribed by ſir William Hamilton in the Philoſ
and another in June 1794, which laid waſte a conſ
try, and deſtroyed ſeveral villages, and a great n
It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that
vius often fills the neighbouring country with terro
in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produ
this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous
of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little t
lity of the country about it, and to the profuſion
with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it i
open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples,
its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confi
for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the
the whole diſtrict of Terra di Lavoro*.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has
60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from
its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone.
are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the
woods, olive trees, and vines; and the upper part i
covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have alway
in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourte
were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrib
time. There is generally an earthquake before an
1693, the Port town of Catania was overturned
periſhed.

Near the lake Agnano and Pozzuolo, there is
tara, becauſe vaſt quantities of ſulphur are continu
clefts by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Cane
poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from its killing
forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and te
common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe va
ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deſer
mentioned. There are five glaciers which exten
of the vale of Chamouny, and are ſeparated by wi
and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice

* Sir William Hamilton in his account of the earthquak
and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives ſe
that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, t
either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, an
under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuov
gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in th
proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from th
evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two
equal diſtance from the centre, the one on a hill, the other
tom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhock
the former; ſufficient proof to him of the cauſe coming from
turally have been productive of ſuch an effect.

cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most and striking vicissitudes. All the several valleys of ice, which iefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in , unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc, the highest mountain rope, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calcu- of M. de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the 2391½ French toises, or 15,303 English feet. "I am convinced," Mr. Coxe, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the height of mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its free at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is, next to Mont , the highest ground in Europe."

ATES OF ITALY, CONSTITU- TION AND CHIEF CITIES. } Thus far of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not, like publics of Holland, Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, ce- d by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable very Italian state has a distinct form of government, trade, and , it will be necessary to take a separate view of each, to assist the in forming an idea of the whole.

duke of SAVOY, or king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from land, is a powerful prince in Italy, by which he is called the Janus, rper, against the French; though in the late irruption of the re- his guardianship has proved of little avail. His capital, , is strongly fortified, and one of the finest cities in Europe; but untry of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are to seek their bread over all the world. They are esteemed a sim- of very honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary in- besides his own family provinces, cannot be less than 500,000l. , out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. Dur- , when assisted by foreign subsidies, he can bring to the field men. The aggrandisement of his present Sardinian majesty efly owing to England, to whom, by his situation, he was esteemed al ally, for the preservation of the balance of power in Europe.

MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, was a most for- state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the go- of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and with a magnificent cathedral, in the Gothic taste, which con- very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, of gold, silver, and precious stones. The revenue of the duchy ve 300,000l. annually, which was supposed might maintain an 30,000 men. The French, in the year 1796, over-run this pro- and erected what was called the Cisalpine republic; but on the encement of hostilities in 1799, the Austrians, within a few regained the whole.

republic of GENOA is greatly degenerated from its ancient and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among its and citizens. Genoa is a most superb city, and contains some gnificent places, particularly those of Doria *, and Durazzo. The

drew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was of- sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican government which still subsists; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and the unfortunate.

inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plai
manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief ma
vets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper.
contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writ
that number), among whom are many rich tradi
maritime power is dwindled down to ſix galleys.
are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its
ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The
Genoa was ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobili
was called the doge or duke; to which dignity no p
till he was fifty years of age. Every two years a n
and the former became incapable, during five years,
poſt again. The doge gave audience to ambaſſador
vernment were iſſued in his name, and he was allow
two hundred Germans.

This government has been aboliſhed, by a revol
rection of the French; and the republic of Genoa i
GURIAN republic. It is governed by a directory,
conſiſting of two councils, one of juniors and the o
members of which were elected by the fifteen depart
territory of the new republic is divided. The total
departments is eſtimated at about 600,000 ſouls.

VENICE, now a part of the Auſtrian territory,
celebrated republics in the world, on account both o
former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provi
of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of
of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of
Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by
Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips
forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the v
magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated,
which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mu
carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient t
architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm.
lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of R
be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its hea
tution of the late republic, it was originally democra
being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people,
one hundred and fifty years; but various changes af
doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were inveſte
which they often groſsly abuſed, and ſome of them
the people. By degrees a body of hereditary nobili
tinued and progreſſive encroachments were made o
people; and a complete ariſtocracy was at length
ruins of the ancient popular government. The n
into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, e
twenty-five years of age, had a right to be a memb
cil. Before the late revolution, theſe elected a doge
in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was manage
balls. The doge was inveſted with great ſtate, ar
ſupreme authority, but had very little power, and
ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the
government and laws were managed by differe
nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſignory, was

l of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This gave audience, and delivered anſwers, in the name of the republic, ign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to erals of the army. It alſo received all requeſts and memorials affairs, ſummoned the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranged the bu- to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council often took cogni- of ſtate crimes, and had the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, ex- ng them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the ce againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which con- ſts of three members, and which was in the higheſt degree def- ve in manner of proceeding, had the power of deciding, without l, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate— ghteſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. eſe three inquiſitors was given the right of employing ſpies, con- ng ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words ions they might think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, ndering them to be executed, when they thought proper. They ys to every apartment of the ducal palace; and could, whenever pleaſed, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his et, and examine his papers: and, of courſe, might command acceſs e houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continued in office ne year, but were not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy were diſplayed his government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any rſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners of any kind, were even cautious of viſiting at each other's houſes.

ll the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large s, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the 's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring a his bucentaur, or ſtate barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobi- was intermitted, for the firſt time for ſeveral centuries, on Aſcenſion 1797; and the bucentaur has ſince been taken away from Venice the French. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. magnificence and convenience of the city, particularly the public pa- s, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the nal canals of Venice are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of ch are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet s, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and, above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all ch bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate, nually, is ſaid to have amounted to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each ued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this were defrayed the enſes of the ſtate, and the pay of the army, which, in the time of ce, conſiſted of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a fo- gn general) and 10,000 militia. They kept up a ſmall fleet for ping the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The French ve, however, preſſed into their ſervice the ſhips they found here; and ewiſe carried away immenſe quantities of arms and military ſtores m the arſenal.

The Venetians have ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are ne of the *Stola d'Oro*, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is con- ed only on the firſt quality; and the military order of St. Mark, of ich in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the au- rity of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them h much power, and both are choſen by the ſenate; and all reli-

gious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepti
here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, ex
public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for b
in general tall and well made; and many fine manl
met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe t
the pencils of Paul Veroneſe and Titian. The
ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and a
The common people are remarkably ſober, obligin
gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it
cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great
during the time of the carnival, an idea has prev
much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in ot
opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great n
viſit Venice during the time of the carnival, and the
theatres here, including the opera-houſes.

The dominions of Venice, before the government
ſubverted by the French, conſiſted of a conſiderable
and Iſtria, the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu,
zolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante.
tories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Pa
ſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vice
diſtricts of Bermago, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trev
the country of Friuli. Of theſe Dalmatia, Iſtria, an
Venetian Terra Firma, were ceded by the French
the late treaty of Campo Formio: the iſlands they re
themſelves; but ſeveral of them have ſince been tak
and Ruſſian fleet.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, whi
by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after
the illuſtrious houſe of Medici, who made their ca
all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly, in architect
the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture.
contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and
duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all de
of their contents; ſo that, in every reſpect, it is reck
the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of M
it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in
proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. T
baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an A
Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounde
pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the
and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this bea
ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees,
lightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of w
of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a plac
and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. T
of the improvements they have made in the Italian to
their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other acade
bliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect gr
nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine, wh
their cellar windows, and ſometimes they even hang o
as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, belid
in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Upon the acceſſion of th
Leopold, afterwards emperor of Germany, to this du

n was introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to eat benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of ny could bring into the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, hat its revenues were above 500,000l. a year. The other princi- owns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the firſt and laſt much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the rn taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from arket-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, es the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of ea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even Mahometans, have free acceſs, and many ſettle. The number of itants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſyn- e, and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving tion, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through hands.

e inhabitants of LUCCA, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtri- f the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful n; ſo that, though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual re- amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which ins about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, fruits, eſpecially olives. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſ- keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to ve their freedom: for in ſuch a ſituation a univerſal concord and oy can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of darling Liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on their city gates and eir public buildings. It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of tle republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air erfulneſs and plenty ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neigh- g countries.

e republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical ity. Its territories conſiſt of a high craggy mountain, with a few ages at the bottom; and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved iberties, as a republic, for 1,300 years. It is under the protection e pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, whoſe er is not more than 5,000, with the ſmall value of their territory, reſerved its conſtitution.

e duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia uaſtalla, form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy, of its ex- The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee and a univerſity; and ſome of its ficent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The pre- ke of * Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. The cities of and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his ic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have with him thither the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable cu- s. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy; is ſaid that his revenues exceed 10,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum

* Ferdinand, duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchess Ma- ria-Joſepha, June 27, 1769. Their iſſue are, a prince and two princeſſes.

rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is fi
inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing
crowns a year, is now much decayed. The ca
fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,0
that Virgil was a native of their country. B
in 1785, this duchy was incorporated with th
vince, called Auſtrian Lombardy. Mantua w
after a long ſiege, on the 2d of February 179
Campo Formio, given up to the Ciſalpine repu
ing as an equivalent the city and territory of
newal of hoſtilities in 1799, it was retaken by
of July.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina),
excited by the French in Italy, was governed b
of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of
duke was abſolute within his own dominions,
was under the protection of the houſe of Au
empire.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which conta
pital of the world, is ſituated about the middle
of popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſi
higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which unde
were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes,
ficent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries
produce, are now converted into noxious peſt
mires; and the Campagna di Roma, that for
of inhabitants, would afford, at preſent, of it
ſiſtence to about five hundred. Notwithſtandi
ſiderable temporal prince: and ſome ſuppoſe
amounts to above a million ſterling: other
much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively,
ling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his terr
cidental income, which formerly far exceeded
niſhed, by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the
drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken b
preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of mon
to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon
ings furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend imm
dominions, form now the greateſt part of his ac
late popes have aimed at the improvement of
labours have had no great effect.

Modern Rome, which ſtands on the Campus
circumference; and was ſuppoſed in 1787 to co
Watkins) 160,000 inhabitants. Within its circ
of gardens and vineyards. It ſtands upon the
river when compared to the Thames, and naviga
and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though i

* Hercules-Renaud, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 17
to the princeſs of Maſſa Carara. Their iſſue, Mary-Be
married to Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, 1771.

† Pope Pius VI. (formerly count Braſchi) was born
created a cardinal in 1773; elected pope Feb. 15, 177
Feb 15, 1798; and died Aug. 19, 1799.—Cardinal
elected pope at Venice, and taken the title of Pius VII.

l to be of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtand- pon the ruins of ancient Rome lies much higher, ſo that it is diffi- o diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When onſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to be- that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtruc- : nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in petition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches ome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, uten- and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknow- ed that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. No , however, in its general appearance, can unite more magnificence poverty than this, as adjoining the moſt ſuperb palaces we ſee the neſt habitations; and temples, the boaſted ornaments of antiquity, ked up by ſheds and cottages. From the drawings of this city Mr. kins expected to ſee the ſtreets at leaſt as broad as in London, but diſappointed. Il Corſo, the principal and moſt admired, is but little er than St. Martin's lane; but this mode of building their ſtreets ſo ow is done with a view of intercepting, as much as poſſible, the s heat. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. ve conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that , we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

here is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at me. Like other princes, he has guards, or ſbirri, who take care of peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and il. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the in- ction of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates rice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has ays a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to p the provinces in awe.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, was the moſt ſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indo- e of its other inhabitants. The government was under a legate *a la-* , who was always a cardinal, and changed every three years. It is annexed to the Ciſalpine republic. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory, and even now ibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the inning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than late, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and vent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the ghbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other ſtates cities illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their s and ancient hiſtory. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obſcure never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, became the admira- of the world, for the riches it contained, and the prodigious reſort of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propa- ed by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is to have dwelt at Nazareth was carried thither through the air by els, attended by many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as, that the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the pro- ndeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the terials of this houſe from being carried to other places, and expoſed relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſe-

parated from the others by a silver baleſtrade, wh
ſame metal. It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold
jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith
loaded; and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here
were equally enriched with the moſt precious diam
ſtition of Roman-catholic princes Loretto is indeb
treaſure. It has been a matter of ſurpriſe that
made by the Turks or Barbary ſtates upon Lor
badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea; but it is n
that the real treaſure is withdrawn, and metals as
ſubſtituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is
the king of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily b
is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in
prehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campa
Græcia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in al
miles. They are bounded on all ſides by the
Adriatic, except on the north-eaſt, where Naples
cleſiaſtical ſtate. The Apennine runs through it
and its ſurface is eſtimated at 3,500 ſquare leagues
the ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy.
Greco, and Lacrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The
pital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned w
art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be
lightful places in Europe to live in were it not fo
volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threatens
tion, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects
which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are
pulation, but in general are five or ſix ſtories i
the top; on which are placed numbers of flower
in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agree
the ſtreets are very handſome: no ſtreet in Rom
Strada di Toledo, at Naples; and ſtill leſs can a
pared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to
and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both
votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and bea
virons are covered with them: and a ſmall par
ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributi
a certain number every day before the doors of the

Though above two-thirds of the property of t
hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the Proteſtants live here
and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to hi
palfrey, as an acknowledgment that this kingdom
ſeate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples.
of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a
the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniſeeds, wool,
honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaro
cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king
generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, d
other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far
Italy, contains at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants. A
30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater pa
dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer
ſas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the
of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain fal

the caverns under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds
ep in a penfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children
he ſuburbs of Naples, near Poſilippo, in huts, or in caverns, or
rs dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing,
by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about
eets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their
for a very ſmall recompenſe. As they do not meet with con-
nployment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance:
deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread
are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is
appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan
y are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendor. This appears
brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants,
hneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. Accord-
a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced
igantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago the Neapolitan la-
ore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women
this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap:
r plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of in-
its, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman
at of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expenſe and extravagance are
the extreme.

rough every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples the traveller may be
tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with
eautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town
næ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and un-
ound granaries; and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and
mans is ſtill marked out to poſterity, by the name of *pezzo di*
, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of
is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a
ated on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and, of
places in the kingdom, has the moſt delightful climate. Nola,
mous for its amphitheatre, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæ-
d, is now hardly worth obſervation.

ndufium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the
tables. It has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruin-
nd the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to
of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not yet emerged.
Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculp-
s Benevento; here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt mag-
t remains of Roman grandeur, out of Rome, erected in the
14, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio contains nothing
able but a Gothic cathedral. It was deſtroyed by an earth-
before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the
ill remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783,
t deſtroyed: only 126 perſons loſt their lives out of 16,000 in-
nts. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earth-
of the 5th of February, the greateſt force of which ſeems to
been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra
. From Trupea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages
either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants
in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, Sir Wil-
Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If
map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles,

you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixin
city of Oppido (which appeared to me to
earthquake had exerted its greateſt force)
which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles), yo
towns and villages that have been utterly r
the greateſt mortality has happened, and
moſt viſible alterations on the face of the
compaſſes on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, p
and form another circle, you will include th
has any mark of having been affected by the

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary
continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts,
its cultivation, and conſequently, fertility,
vegetable, mineral, and animal productions,
with thoſe of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have main
ginally joined to the continent of Italy, but
by the encroachments of the ſea, and the
to become a perfect iſland. The climate of
in the beginning of January the ſhade is ref
are only felt a few days in March, and then
baniſh the cold. The only appearance of
ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls,
a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, con
dations are extremely numerous here: the bu
the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland w
its government more equitable, it would in
ful place of reſidence. There are a great n
antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are
of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the cap
to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two
croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid
Italy which is lighted at night at the public
conſiderable trade; as alſo did Meſſina, whic
1783, was a large and well-built city, conta
convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By tha
the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port
derable damage done to the lofty uniform buil
in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of t
lent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio to
for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the
have periſhed. "The greateſt mortality fell
tries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ulteriora
mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At
Gerace, and upwards of 4,000 of the inhabita
gnara, the number of dead amounted to 3,017:
their loſs at about 3,000 each; Terra Nuova
more. The ſum total of the mortality in bo
by the earthquakes alone, according to the r
ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but Sir W
has good reaſon to believe, that, including
lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater;
allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a ro
voy, lies about 150 miles ſouth by weſt of Leg

is. Its capital, Cagliari, is a univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and t of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is t that his Sardinian Majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, s a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high moun- n the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of t was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

e Iſland of CORSICA lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent between lf of Genoa and the Iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty againſt their ſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of nch to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoyed from or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, igs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome nd horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with he inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, ce of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland that were eſſion of the malcontents appear to have been but poorly fortified. he year 1794 it was taken by the Engliſh, and annexed to the of England. A conſtitution was framed for it, a viceroy ap- d, and a parliament aſſembled. But it has ſince been retaken by, ill remains in the poſſeſſion of, the French.

PRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from rt of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It ex- four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly ad inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano-Capri, the largeſt town of nd, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in ces that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long, as the . Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots n eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, al- oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, which look extremely nd beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated n of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace.— midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of us was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very ex- of the eaſtern promontory.

n this place there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it the ends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green tory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

IA, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and ing now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba has nowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth- om Tuſcany, and it is 80 miles in circumference, containing 00 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to Porto Longone belongs, the great duke of Tuſcany, who is

maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of P
wine of the iſland are very good, and the ta
produced a good revenue.

LIPARI ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands lie to the
anciently called the Æolian iſlands. There a
Lipari, Stromboli, Vulcano, Saline, Felicuda,
nello, Baſiluzzo, Liſca Bianca, Dattolo, and I
ject to the king of Naples, and produce great qu
nitre, cinnabar, and moſt kinds of fruits, par
and figs, in great perfection. Some of their
eſpecially the Malvaſia or Malmſey. Great qu
ported from Lipari. All theſe iſlands are of v
boli has a conſiderable volcano, which is remark
in a ſtate of eruption. The number of inhabi
between 9 and 10,000, and thoſe of Stromboli
cano is uninhabited, and ſeveral of the other i
barren rocks.

We ſhall here mention the iſle of MALTA,
ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was form
ſituated in 15 degrees E. long. and 36 degrees
Cape Paſſaro in Sicily. It is of an oval figur
broad. The air is clear, but exceſſive hot:
be a white rock, covered with a thin ſurface o
amazingly productive of excellent fruits and
or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. J
by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks dr
under the tender of one falcon yearly to the vic
knowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for
now known by the diſtinction of the knights of
vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep
than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſe
tholic countries on the continent, and are un
grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lo
formerly accounted the prime baron in Engla
number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland,
ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummo
appearance. They had a ſeminary in England,
Henry VIII. but they now give to one the title
land. They were conſidered as the bulwark o
Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of t
eight points enamelled white, pendant to a blac
breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo as to diſti
knight. They are generally of noble families,
gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked acc
There are ſixteen called the great-croſſes, out
the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &
great-maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out
is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering
the ſixteen great croſſes the great-maſter is elect
moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince, the
maſter of the Hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem
Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend th
ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their

* The iſland of Malta is governed by a g

ief town Valletta, or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole s ſo well fortified as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th ember there is an annual proceſſion at Malta in memory of the raiſing the ſiege on that day, 1563, after four months aſſault, their artillery, &c. behind.

e beginning of June, 1798, the iſland of Malta was ſurrendered French under Buonaparte, who landed there a body of troops from t then on its paſſage for Egypt.

IS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as fol- The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, Or, ſurmounted croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together e two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, with three fleurs-de-lis, Or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion, ſejant, Or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, ar- Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for d of Corſica; and for ſupporters two griffins, Or. The arms of ure, azure, ſemée of fleur-de-lis, Or, with a label of five points,

" order of St. *Januarius*" was inſtituted by the late king of when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is to thirty, and after the preſent ſovereign that office of the order e poſſeſſed by the kings of Naples. All the knights muſt prove ility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed itle of Excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, atron of this order. The " order of *Annunciation*" was inſtituted ear 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Ama- who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks, and won thoſe hich are now worn by the dukes of Savoy: " gules, a croſs ar- It is counted among the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe: the muſt be of a noble family, but alſo a papiſt. In the year 1572, d Philibert, duke of Savoy, inſtituted the " order of *St. Lazarus*," ived and united to it the obſolete order of *St. Maurice*; which was ed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two galleys he Turks.

e year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed exandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly, this ſaint hath en for their tutelar ſaint and guardian, and his picture was for- inted on their enſigns and banners. When the " order of *St.* was firſt inſtituted is uncertain, but it was an honour conferred doge or duke of Venice and the ſenate on perſons of eminent or who had done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic. The when made, if preſent, were dubbed with a ſword on their s, the duke ſaying " *Eſto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful ſoldier).— perſons were inveſted by letters patent; but their title " *Knights lark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenues, nor are they ny obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1460, III. emperor of Germany, inſtituted the " order of *St. George*," icated it to St. George, tutelar ſaint and patron of Genoa. The perpetual grand-maſter. The badge, a plain croſs enamelled, endant to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The croſs mbroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Caſimir of Me- ſt grand-duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the " order of *St. Stephen*," ory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that pro-

vince. He and his ſucceſſors were to be the
are allowed to marry, and their two princi
Piſa. It is a religious as well as military or
tice and the eccleſiaſtics are obliged to ma
deſcents. They wear a red croſs with right
ſide of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghoſt*" was found
hoſpital of that name in Rome, by pope I
1198. They have a grand-maſter, and prof
poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,0
they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, trai
Their enſign is a white patriarchal croſs w
their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mant
*Chriſt*," inſtituted by pope John XXII. wa
pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be a
was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the
on account of its frequent proſtitution it has
"order of the *Golden Spur*" is ſaid to have b
IV. 1559, and to have been connected with
tuted a year afterwards; but the badges we
of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knigh
preſerved to themſelves is the title of Counts
Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight point
two bottom points a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt people
mentioned in the Introduction, to which we
cient hiſtory of this country, which, for many
known world, under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in
ſame fate with that of Alexander. Under his
time entirely diſmembered. His ſon Louis
his dominions in France and Germany, whil
Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adj
having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle
vied war, and Louis himſelf dying in 840, h
among his ſons Lothario, Louis, and Charles
of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and th
between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis
fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of t
after this Italy was ravaged by different conte
Otho the Great re-united Italy to the imperia
wards ſuffered much by the conteſts between t
it was haraſſed by wars and internal diviſi
principalities and ſtates were erected under dif

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot
the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty
of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance

* Charles Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, king of Sa
May 24, 1751; married, in 1775, to Maria-Adelheid
unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and ſiſters of the
1. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753
vence. Vid. France.
2. Maria-Thereſa, born Jan. 31, 1756; married to
3. Anna-Maria-Caroline, born Dec. 17, 1757.

reat duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperor of Germany, erned it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinc- the Guelphs, who were the partiſans of the pope, and the es, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes ſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany to put themſelves e protection of the church; but the Florentines in a ſhort time themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their free- nd the family of Medici, long before they were declared either or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and pri- of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſ- o was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the hared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-In- , before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave is deſcendants (Coſmo, the great patron of the arts) the title of ke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great-duchy o claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, en to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain (afterwards emperor, her of Joſeph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was o France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon (brother and ſuc- o the emperor Joſeph II.) upon the death of his father, became uke. When he ſucceeded to the imperial crown, his ſon Ferdi- ntered upon the ſovereignty of the grand-duchy of Tuſcany, who w ſucceeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and ſeveral ſhips of very rable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the ations of the infidels.

country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which o be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by onquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Sara- nd, by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable chy, flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes hen all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſ- Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſ- of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions agical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

government of the Spaniards under the Auſtrian line was ſo op- e, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings, in the year 1647. His s was ſo ſurpriſing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abo- e oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Be- eſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through ntinual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at

Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan, duc d'Aoſte, born July 24, 1759; married, April 25, Maria-Thereſa, niece to the preſent emperor.
Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Montferrat, born September 12, 1762.
Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
Charles-Joſeph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
Joſeph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily c
niards till the year 1700, when the extinction of
ed a new scene of litigation. In 1706, the ar
wards Emperor, took possession of the kingdom.
treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the
the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war
tween the houses of Austria and Bourbon, abou
ples; and Don Carlos was received into the capi
claimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed
paign, but the farther effusion of blood was sto
France and the emperor, to which the courts of
first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736
mained king of Naples. Upon his accession to
1759,—it being found, by the inspection of phys
that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated fo
cond being heir-apparent to the Spanish monar
crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV.
duchess of Austria*.

The Milanese, the fairest portion of Italy, went
the Vicontis were succeeded by the Galeazzos an
at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V.
who gave it to his son, Philip II. king of Spain.
crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in
alists. They were dispossessed of it in 1745; but
sion of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Sp
house of Austria, who governed it by a viceroy, t
it by the French, and the establishment of the n
of which it forms the principal part.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed b
zaga, who, adhering to France, the territory wa
the empire, to the house of Austria. Guastalla w
1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to po
having been annexed to the holy see in 1545, by
descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in
ster of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majest
and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of P

The Venetians were formerly the most formid
Europe. In 1194 they conquered Constantinople
some time, together with a great part of the contine
They were more than once brought to the brink of
federacies formed against them among the other po
cially by the league of Cambray in 1509, but w
the disunion of the confederates. The discovery
by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to
lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks
most valuable possessions on the continent; and so

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third son of k
king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751, ascended the throne Octo
April 7, 1768, to the archduchess Maria-Carolina-Louisa, fi
whom he has had issue 15 children, 10 of whom are living: a
1. Maria-Theresa, present empress of Germany, born Jun
2. Theresa-Clementina, born November 23, 1775; marr
the archduke Ferdinand.
3. Francis-Januarius, prince royal; born August 17, 1777
tina, the archduchess, September, 1790.

the Morea. In 1797 the French ſeized upon the city of Ve- oliſhed its government, and ſoon after ceded it by treaty to the , with a conſiderable part of its continental territory.

Genoeſe for ſome time diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their dependency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes d, by the French and Imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magi- ſed to be crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly ap- what title. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the vic- Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war, which was ter- d by the peace of Aix-la Chapelle, in 1748, has few parallels in and ſerves to ſhow the effect of deſpair under oppreſſion. Ge- lately been revolutioniſed by France, and a new form of repub- vernment eſtabliſhed there.

hiſtory of the papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom it- The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by ous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo nown by the name of Hildebrand). It would be too tedious here r into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes erated to the aggrandiſement of the papacy, previous to the nation. Ever ſince that æra, the ſtate of Europe has been that the popes have had more than once great weight in its affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal

papal power is evidently now nearly extinct. Even before the times, when innovation and revolution have made ſuch rapid the pope was treated by Roman-catholic princes with very little ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of poral principality. In the preſent war, though he acted with rable caution and moderation, he co-operated with the allied againſt France: in conſequence of which, the French made an on into his territories, where they met with little reſiſtance, and ced him to ſign a peace on ſuch terms as they thought proper to He paid a conſiderable contribution in money; and conſented ch of the moſt valuable ſtatues and pictures in Rome, as com- ers appointed for that purpoſe ſhould ſelect, ſhould be carried and conveyed to Paris. But about the latter end of December, a riot happening at Rome, in which the French general Duphot lled, the French army, under general Berthier, marched againſt ty, entered it without reſiſtance, and, on the 15th of February, the tree of liberty was planted, the papal government aboliſhed, he Roman people declared by the French commander to have d on the rights of ſovereignty, and to conſtitute what was termed oman republic. On the 20th of March the new conſtitution was ed, and the government declared to be veſted in five conſuls, com- a directory under the direction of the French general, as com- r in chief, 32 ſenators, correſponding to the council of ancients nce, and 72 tribunes, called the repreſentatives of the people.

e pope remained in Rome when the French entered it, and ſuffer- nſelf to be made a priſoner by them. They confined him to his ooms, and put the ſeal of confiſcation on every thing he had; but ew days they reſolved that he ſhould be ſent from Rome, and on the ng of the 20th of February he left that city, accompanied by

a body of French cavalry, who escorted him to whence, on the 26th of May, he was removed to within two miles of Florence; from which, after of hostilities with the allies, he was again rem Valence in France, at which latter town he died 1799. In the beginning of December a conclav and, on the 13th of March following, cardinal ed to the papal chair.

In November, 1798, the king of Naples comm the French, attacked the new Roman republic, triumph. But this success was quickly follow The French, collecting their forces, not only but totally defeated the Neapolitan army, made the city of Naples, and compelled its sovereign island of Sicily. The successes which attended trians and Russians in the campaign of 1799, a co-operation of the English fleet under lord N again expelled the French both from Naples king of the Two Sicilies has not yet thought it his capital.

The late pope, John Angelo Braschi, who took Pius VI. was born at Cesena, December 27, 17 ruary 15, 1775; dethroned by the French, F died at Valence, August 19, 1799.

Gregory Barnabas Chiaramonti, the present p the name of Pius VII. was born at Cesena, elected pope at Venice, March 13, 1800.

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# TURKEY.

The GRAND SIGNOR's dominions are

1. TURKEY IN EUROPE.
2. TURKEY IN ASIA.
3. TURKEY IN AFRICA.

## TURKEY IN EUROPE

### SITUATION AND EXTEN

| | Miles. | | Degrees |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 1000 | between | 17 and 40 |
| Breadth | 900 | | 36 and 49 |

Containing 181,400 square miles, with 14

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Russia, Pol the North; by Circassia, pontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the I nean on the South; by the same sea, and the Ve territories, on the West.

1

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| north coast of Black Sea are provinces of - | Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Tauric Chersonesus * - - - - | Precop<br>Bachiserai<br>Kaffa | 26,200 |
| | Budziac Tar - - | Oczakow - | 12,000 |
| of the Danube the provinces of | Beſſarabia - - - - | Bender - - | 8,000 |
| | Moldavia, olim Dacia - - - - | Belgorod<br>Jaſſy<br>Choczim<br>Falczin | 26,000 |
| | Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia - - - | Tergoviſto - | 10,500 |
| of the Danube - - - - | Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia - - - - - | Widdin<br>Nicopoli<br>Siliſtria<br>Scopia | 17,000 |
| | Servia, the weſt part of Myſia - - - | Belgrade<br>Semendria<br>Niſſa | 22,570 |
| | Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum - | Serajo - - - | 8,640 |
| e Boſphorus and lleſpont - - | Romania, olim Thrace | Conſtantinople, N. 1. 41. E. 1. 29. 21. 200<br>Adrianople | |
| of Mount Rhoe, or Argentum, north part of the ient Greece | Macedonia - - - | Strymon - | 18,980 |
| | | Conteſſa | |
| | Theſſaly, now Janua | Salonichi - - | 4,650 |
| | | Lariſſa | |
| | Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia - - | Athens<br>Thebes<br>Lepanto | 3,420 |
| he Adriatic Sea or ulf of Venice, the cient Illyricum | Epirus - - - - | Chimæra - - | 955 |
| | | Burtrinto | |
| | Albania - - - - | Scodra<br>Durazzo - - - | 6,375 |
| | | Dulcigno | |
| | Dalmatia - - - | Zara - - - - - | 4,560 |
| | | Narenza | |
| | Raguſa Republic † | Raguſa - - - - | 430 |

The Ruſſians, in 1783, ſeized the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion; by a treaty, ſigned January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the Iſle of ian, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The ks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black

The republic of Raguſa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Eu-, is not under the Turkiſh govern ment: It is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Ch |
|---|---|---|
| In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the [illegible] division in Greece, are | Corinthia - - - - - | Co |
| | Argos - - - - - | Ar Na |
| | Sparta - - - - | La nov on |
| | Olympia, where the games were held. | Eu Ol Lo the ph |
| | Arcadia - - - | M |
| | Elis - - - - | Co Pa Eli de riv |

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature h [illegible] of Turkey all her blessings in those fo [illegible] though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond descr [illegible] and friendly to the imagination, unless [illegible] from the neighbouring countries, or through th [illegible] of the Turkish manner of living. The se [illegible] and pleasant, and have been celebrated from th [illegible] The Turks are invited to frequent bat [illegible] of the water all over their domin

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated [illegible] at the same time, often the most fruitful. Mou [illegible] running into the Ægean sea; the mount [illegible] in the Grecian fables, separate Thess [illegible] in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated [illegible] known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentio [illegible] but most of the other mountains have changed their

[illegible] the model of that of Venice. The government is in th [illegible] the chief of the republic, who is styled rector, is cha [illegible] During his short administration, [illegible] As the Ragusans are unable to [illegible] to procure them protectors, the ch [illegible] was the grand signor. They endeavour also to keep up [illegible] Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year [illegible] between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of [illegible] commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the [illegible] king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not abov [illegible] but it is well built, and contains some handsome [illegible] was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans [illegible] Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Al [illegible] and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, [illegible] Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. [illegible] among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greatest [illegible] They have many trading vessels, and are great carrier [illegible] being constantly at peace with the piratical state [illegible] Stagno, 50 miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within t [illegible] and there are also five small islands belonging to it, [illegible] Mecca.

ins Shua, Witoſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even ſt celebrated mountains above mentioned have modern names upon them by the Turks, their new maſters, and others in their ourhood.

s.] The Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Mæötis, or Sea of Aſoph; a of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipe- the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that Turkey rope, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, of er countries had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

RAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſphorus are joined to the f Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as in ancient . The former, viz. the Helleſpont, or Dardanelles, is only two nd a half in breadth, and is famous for the paſſage of Xerxes over en about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition Aſia. The former, for the more eaſy tranſportation of his nume- rces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is alſo celebrated by the n the ſtory of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom, the latter croſs it to his miſtreſs, but one night was unhappily drowned. The orus is about the ſame breadth, but has not been ſo much celebrated lorians and poets.

ERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Dneiper, and the are the beſt known rivers in this country; though many others een celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

KES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they men- with any great applauſe, either by the ancients ot moderns. ago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago ve, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its s and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and the Peneus, from its es, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iſſues, conceived ancients to be the paſſage into hell.

TALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of s of mines; and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

ETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the Eu- Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of in- Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country es, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, ranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs not common in other f Europe, are produced here.

MALS.] The Theſſalian or Turkiſh horſes are excellent both ir beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in . The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to habitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. arge eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh archers, and they an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Eu- but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of food.

TIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain, reece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. e iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the e where the Iſthmian games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. , which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful

ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated anti
a minute account of which would exceed the limits
will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſid
antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains
nerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed wi
lumns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and
in circumference: the architrave is adorned with ba
bly executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athen
eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the
beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought
the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine
fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. J
ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with flu
Doric order; the portico at the weſt end is adorn
the Centaurs, in baſſo relievo; that at the eaſt app
ation of the ſame hiſtory: and on the outſide of
ſpaces between the triglyphs, are repreſented the
On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructur
the Lantern of Demoſthenes: this is a ſmall ro
marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted
rinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the ſp
lumns are panels of marble; and the whole is co
carved with the reſemblance of ſcales: and on the
repreſented in relievo, the labours of Hercules.
ſeen the temple of the Winds, the remains of the
of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian
of Jupiter Olympius and Auguſtus. The remain
the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the
Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a ple
ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with
in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous Ca
ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned
monly called Monte Santo, lies on a peninſula w
Ægean Sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains,
length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in
breadth; but it is only a ſingle mountain that is pr
This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients
was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitant
at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or
rina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtan
eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on Mo
great number of cells and grottos, with the habitat
ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the prop
in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks a
as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call the
tants of the holy mountains, are ſo far from being a
that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cu
vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cl
&c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual
being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit;
on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts ar
which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders lo
there, that many of them live above a hundred year
Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, a

it, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; e the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are r informed by Philoſtratus, in the Life of Apollonius, that numbers ilofophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contem- n of the heavens and of nature; and after their example the monks lefs built their cells.

TIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated e European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of ncient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, more inviting ſituation than Rome, for the ſeat of empire. It be- afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and having eſcaped ſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the ic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance nners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek ors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the ndies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the Eu- n writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. antinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its on and its ports. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls and gates, where the merchants their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the odrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 100, where they exerciſe rſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the al reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port are four s, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo that a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign embaſſadors ll the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place eat trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Con- ne the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a tian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed, in grandeur and ecture, St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, he ſeraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the nents in which the grand ſignor's women are confined, as is com- imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the io is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public ctions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Con- ople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. urrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the tal manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the of which are double on the land ſide. Some authors have eſtimated contain above 800,000 inhabitants, and others 600,000, but, ac- ng to Mr. Dallaway, do not exceed 400,000, including the ſub- of Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Of theſe 200,000 are , 100,000 Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and s of all the European nations. The city has frequently ſuffered

great damage by fires, either owing to the narrowne
the ſtructure of the houſes, or the practices of the J
ſaid, fire the city as often as they are diſcontented v
In Auguſt, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſitu
bour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10
which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were c

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſiatic ſide, an
half diſtant, acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned
and a pleaſant houſe of the grand ſignor. On the
hill is a grand proſpect, embracing in one view the
ple, the ſuburbs Galata and Pera, the ſmall ſeas o
Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore

As to the population, manners, religion, governm
ing, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures
depending on the ſame principles all over the empire
under Turkey in Aſia.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient
and is a peninſula, lying on the Euxine, or Black
bounded on the weſt and ſouth, and on the eaſt and
of Aſoph. It is between forty-four and forty-ſix de
and thirty-four and thirty-ſeven degrees of eaſt longi

This peninſula was eſteemed a part of Turkey in
ceded to Ruſſia, in conſequence of the peace in 1784
built on it by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Cherſ
ticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great
thians, as well as with the Greek cities on the contin

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are
Salagir, both of which take an eaſterly courſe.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but
tions; and indeed where the country has been ſo of
and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little c
their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravin
without doubt, had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in th
us, that "a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building,
without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furnitu
are ranged round the room for ſeats; and, what i
nient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room
which draws back in moſt places: ſo that in a place
pears to be exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is ye
to be met with."

Among the curioſities in this country, we may reck
river Caruſa, which is ſituated among the rocks,
manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. It w
Craven in 1786. No leſs wonderful are thoſe lake
rivulets without any viſible outlet. This celebrat
mentions a houſe near Sebaſtopol, ſituated in a very
the foot of ſome rocks, from which iſſue many clea
ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſun
there are places through which immenſe cables have
been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea was once
them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bachiſera
earth exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very goo
vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women of Co
Craven beſtows the greateſt encomium on the ſheep,
inſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautifu

heep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the
o have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and
mooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſatins. Coats lined with theſe
are called peliſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals
be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt
nts the empreſs can make to an ambaſſador.
he peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called
rocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and
ſatin. At Bachiſerai there is a great trade of ſword blades, knives,
hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are
de at Damaſcus.

## ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being Part of Ancient GREECE.

I ſhall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as
converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed
art.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the
th-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is ninety
les long and twenty-five broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles.
re the Turkiſh galleys lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and
iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle,
ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap.
e chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont, called by the Greeks
ripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, on the narroweſt
t of the ſtrait; and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Ægean Sea or
chipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of twenty-five miles in length and
adth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches
e from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called
a *Lemnia*, or *terra ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks,
o receive from it a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and
ng mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and
the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. It has a town of the ſame name.

SCYROS is about ſixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly
the remains of antiquity which it contains: about three hundred
eek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MITYLENE, is about ſixty miles long, and is famous for
number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were
merly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about eighty miles weſt of Smyrna, and s about
e hundred miles in circumference. This iſland, though roky and
ountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by
0,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3,000 Latins. It has 300
urches, beſides chapels and monaſteries; and a Turkiſh gariſon of
00 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gid and
ver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the entiſk-
e, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue.
he women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, hae in all
es been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have ben the
oſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. A late

learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "
girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. M
ting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton o
spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with
welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays
with them in groups. They wear short petticoats,
knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their hea
liar to the island, is a kind of turban; the linen
seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow
fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened wit
ments were silk of various colours; and their wh
tastic and lively as to afford us much entertainme
a separate quarter, and their women are conceale
and historians said to be born here, the inhabitan
show a little square house, which they call Home

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast
seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles
This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inha
tians, who are well treated by the Turks, their m
Samian wine is in high request; and the island al
they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and fi
posed to have been the native country of Juno
think that the ruins of her temple, and of the
the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about tw
ference, but so barren and dreary, that it may
than an island. It has, however, a convenien
Greek monks who are upon the island show a
supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round D
the chief of them, which is south of the islands N
almost mid-way between the continents of Asia
Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it i
brated of all the Grecian islands, as being the bir
Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples
island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the islands of Luxia an
other Greek islands, it contains the most striking
of antiquity; but it is chiefly renowned for the b
its marble.

CERGO, or CYTHERA, lies south-east of the M
miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainou
able for being the favourite residence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the southernmost islands i
was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Ther
covered with pumice-stones, yet, through the indu
who are about 10,000, it produces barley and w
One-third of the people are of the Latin church,
bishop. Near this island another arose of the
bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its ri
quake, attended with most dreadful lightnings an
ings of the sea for several days, so that, when it a
was a mere volcano; but the burning soon ceased.
above the sea; and at the time of its first emergin
broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has

other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like origin, but the sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be sounded.

The famous island of RHODES is situated in the twenty-eighth degree of east longitude, and thirty-six degrees thirty minutes north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about sixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which also bears the name of Rhodes, is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interlaced with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand-signor's principal harbour for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world; one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships sailed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth place of Jupiter, the seat of legislature to all Greece, and many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between thirty-five and thirty-six degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and sixty broad, almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 3,220 square miles. The famous Mount Ida rises in the middle of the island, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the valleys in this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kind. The siege of Candia, the capital of the Island, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645; and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself against fifty-six assaults, to the latter end of September 1669, made, at last, an honourable capitulation. The siege cost the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 30,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant Sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is one hundred and fifty miles long, and sixty broad; and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of all that grows in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to a surprising degree, so that the revenue

they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is m of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, fil female inhabitants do not degenerate from their an Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure a of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of E prus, on account of its king's treachery; and its ri red to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from wh Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The Iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, SAPIENZA, ST PHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and particularly the Iſola del Compare, which would had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place an Theſe iſlands, in general, are fruitful, and belong but, after the late revolution of Venice, paſſed int French republic.

ZANTE has a populous capital of the ſame name, ſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 me pendence is on their fleet, and the iſland of Corfu. Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friend fu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſid general over all the other iſlands, is a place of gr circumference about four miles. The Venetians cerned themſelves very little about the welfare o iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

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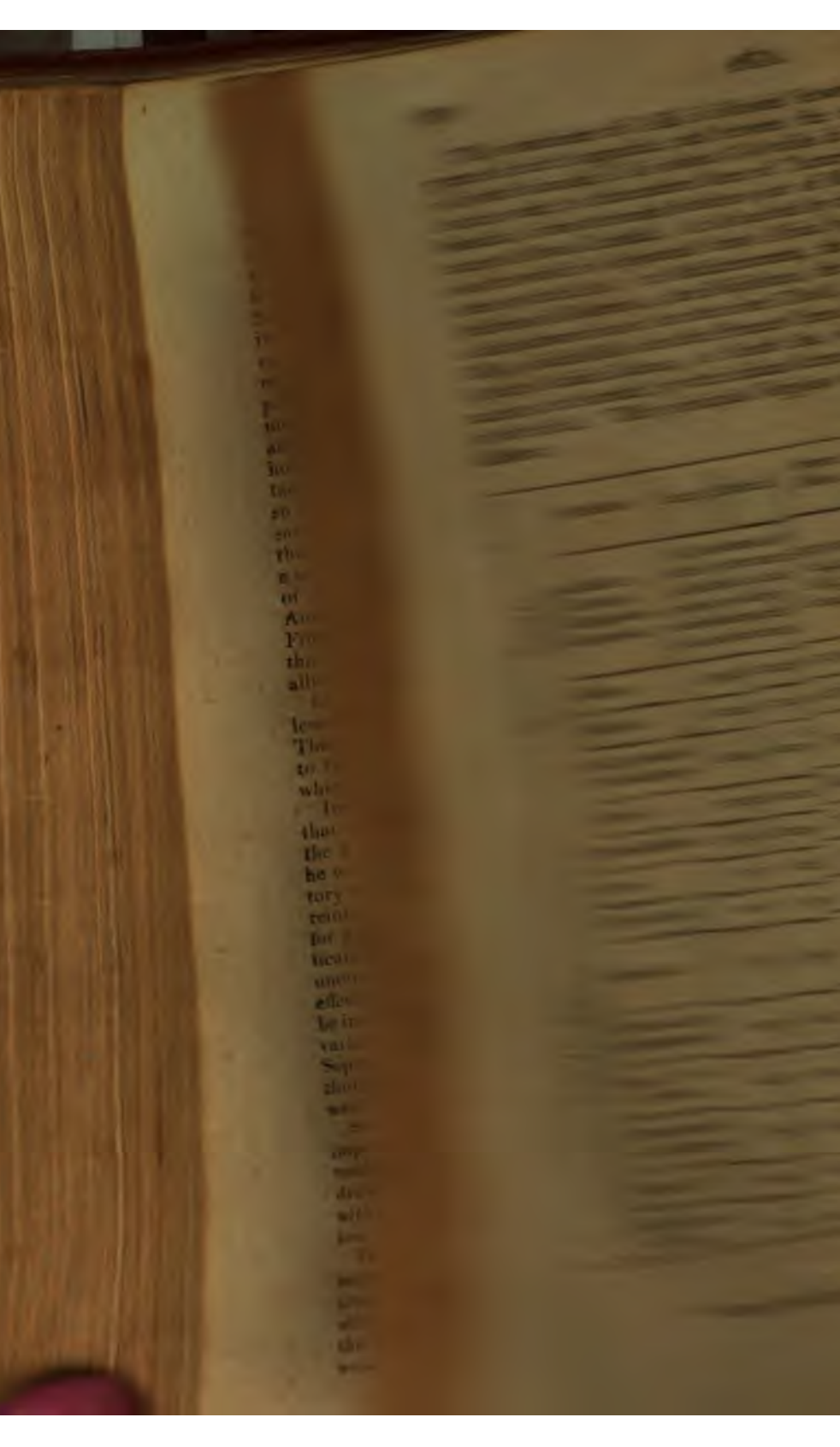
# ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the exte it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragran lities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of tity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richn the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, cred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, fro mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſe the deluge. whence the deſcendants of Noah diſper lonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he e tions delivered by the prophets, and to whom he g Truth. It was here that the great and merciful wo was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was fro of his glorious goſpel was carried, with amazing r known nations by his diſciples and followers. H churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith mir and cheriſhed, even with the blood of innumerable Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the fi

e other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. ieſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but be owned that a great change hath happened in that part of it urkey, which has loſt much of its ancient ſplendour; and, from t populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and ated deſert. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility as moſt inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This acy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in eaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſymptoms re more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the ſame la- with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any Eu- nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies, the Chineſe, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt n regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity r minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which oſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

s vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed, in paſt times, Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the im- regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or nquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the le ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they were uſually called, ens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive re than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its t of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Ta- ne; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the le regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries ſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains, at preſent, three empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend. The pre- g form of government, in this diviſion of the globe, is abſolute rchy. If any of its inhabitants can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of y, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of ſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not ive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form vernment than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, , part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The n and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Ali, and the others at of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the n for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, , China, Japan, and the Aſiatic Iſlands, they are generally heathens idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, gh planted here with wonderful rapidity, by the apoſtles and primi- fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Sara- , and afterwards by the Turks; incredible indeed have been the rds, peril, and ſufferings of the catholic miſſionaries, to propagate doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idola- ; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great ſure to the avarice, cruelty, and injuſtice, of the Europeans, who re- thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

he principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the kiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Ma- n, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo en upon the coaſts of India and China.



the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, already described in the Le- belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and ndian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or settlements, are,

| ISLANDS. | TOWNS. | S. Miles. | Trade with or belong to |
|---|---|---|---|
| Japanese Isles | Jeddo, Meaco | 138,000 | Dutch |
| Ladrones | Guam | ..... | Spain |
| nosa | Tai-ouan-sou | 17,000 | China |
| [illegible] | Kiontcheow | 11,900 | China |
| Philippines | Manilla | 133,700 | Spain |
| Molucca, or Clove isles | Victoria Fort, Ternate | ..... | Dutch |
| Banda, or Nutmeg isles | Lantor | ..... | Dutch |
| boyna } surrounding | Amboyna | 400 | Dutch |
| ebes } the Molucca | Macasser | 68,400 | Dutch |
| lo, &c. } & Banda isles | Gilolo | 10,400 | Dutch |
| Sunda isles { Borneo | Borneo, Caytongee | 228,000 | All Nations |
| Sumatra | Achen, Bencoolen | 129,000 | English and Dutch |
| Java, &c. | Batavia, Bantam | 38,250 | Dutch |
| Andaman & Nicobar isles | Andaman, Nicobar | ..... | All Nations |
| lon | Candy | 27,730 | Dutch |
| Maldives | Caridon | ..... | All Nations |
| bay | Bomba | ..... | English |
| Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschatka, lately overed by the Russians | | | Russia. |

# TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1000 } | between | 27 and 46 East longitude. } | 520,820. |
| Breadth 800 } | | 28 and 45 North latitude. } | |

UNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia the Levant Sea on the South; and by the Archipelago, the llespont, and Propontis which separate it from Europe, on the st.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| e eastern vinces are | 1. Irac Arabia, or Chaldea, | Bassorah and Bagdad. |
| | 2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia, | Diarbec, Orfa, &c. |
| | 3. Curdistan, or Assyria, | Mousul and Betlis. |
| | 4. Turcomania, or Armenia, | Erzerum and Van. |
| | 5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia | Teflis, Armarchia, & Gonie; Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus. |
| atolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west. | 1. Natolia Proper | Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope. |
| | 2. Amasia | Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope. |
| | 3. Aladulia | Ajazzo and Marat. |
| | 4. Caramania | Satalia and Terasso. |
| st of the Levant Sea. | Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land. | Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, Jerusalem. |

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as ings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Ta Caucasus, and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Mæander, Sarabat,

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delig gree, and naturally salubrious to the human consti equality with which the Author of Nature has dis Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited ful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place structire, from the native indolence of the Turks, belief in a predestination, which prevents them precautions to defend themselves against this calam

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contai vinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to inform duces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abund the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine every species, coffee, myrrh, Frankincense, and o drugs, are natives here almost without culture, wh by Greek and Armenian Christians. The oli oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provi cious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabit it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparag man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of ot ness. In short, nature has brought all her producti perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } The same ma mals. The bre

Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable be and have considerably improved that of the En quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are from their strength, their agility, and above all eating and drinking, which is greater than that of mal. Their manufacture, known by the name of c made by a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exc said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europ meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in great perfe are well known by their tallness, swiftness in run The Roman Epicures prized no fish, except la oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country co that are to be found in the richest kingdoms and and its medicinal springs and baths exceed those o world.

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## OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Th

no means equal, either in its extent or fertility, no graphers been able to ascertain it, because of th

It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or
der the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and, above
he tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy,
s undoubtedly very unfavourable to population, as may be evinced
any reaſons; and particularly, becauſe the Greeks and Arme-
among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific
he Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they
t by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation.
urkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two Euro-
rinces.

o the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men;
th, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their
d eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are
nly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their
nour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and
; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable;
th diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond con-
: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe.
h the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or
manity, with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from
in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial
ons for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme
and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, confan-
y, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved. The
s of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European.
are hoſpitable to ſtrangers, and the vices of avarice and inhumanity
chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be chari-
o one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and
ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places
ertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the
ment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view
earch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries
luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats,
nly at their meals, but in company. Their ideas are ſimple and
ed, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes, where
it converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco,
wing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate
ir own or any other country. If a vifier, baſhaw, or other officer,
ed out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion than that
will be a new vifier or governor, feldom inquiring into the reaſon
e diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit
greeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom
any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is
iated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly
ught and ſold.

e Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and ſup at five
winter, and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal;
ng the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but
have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their re-
to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſea-
. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is
d up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and
boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high
ned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee;
the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſa-

tions resembling those of intoxication. Guests
have their beards perfumed by a female slave of
temperate and sober from a principle of their
them the use of wine; though in private many
selves in strong liquors. Their common salutat
of the head, and laying their right hand on their
linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, an
a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabi
have any notion of walking or riding either for he
most religious among them find, however, suffic
conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, pra
them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a
darts, at which they are very expert. Some of
of hunting, and take the field with numerous
joined by their inferiors; but this is often don
that they may know the strength of their dep
the chess or draught-board are their usual a
play at chance games, they never bet money, t
the Koran.

DRESS.] The men shave their heads, leavi
and wear their beards long. They cover their h
never put it off but when they sleep. Their shir
wristband, and over them they throw a long vest
sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown so
breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their st
shoes they wear slippers, which they put off whe
house. They suffer no Christians, or other p
bans. The dress of the women differs little fro
they wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with
mitre, and wear their hair down. When they
so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest
women as are virtuous, make no use of paint t
or to disguise their complexion; but they often
feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow
the same expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country
the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon
down a sum of money, a license is taken out
magistrate, and the parties are married. The b
in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and th
ployed in furnishing the house of the young co
lowed by their law more than four wives, but
concubines as they can maintain. The wealth
sides their wives, keep a number of women in th
are improperly called in Europe, their seraglio
gences are sometimes insufficient to restrain their

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are
attended by the relations, chanting passages fro
being deposited in a mosque (for so they call the
ried in a field by the iman or priest, who pron
at the time of the interment. The male relat
by alms and prayers; the women by decking th
with flowers and green leaves; and, in mourni
wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all fin

IGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, ſo called Mahomet, the author of it, ſome account of whom the reader will the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that im- The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ion among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, ſeems to great power in the ſtate.

CLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS, RESTRICTIONS OF CHRISTIANS. } The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part nances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the s impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch as muſt always diſ- at people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, en, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads ged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city an pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male tians pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, ac- g to their ſtations.

s inſulting diſtinction of Chriſtian and Mahometan (ſays Mr. ), is carried to ſo great a length, that even the minutiæ of dreſs are ted ſubjects of reſtriction. A Chriſtian muſt wear only clothes and dreſſes of dark colours, and ſuch as Turks never wear, with ſlip- of black leather, and muſt paint his houſe black, or dark brown. leaſt violation of theſe frivolous and diſguſting regulations is pu- d with death. Nor is it at all uncommon for a Chriſtian to have ead ſtruck off in the ſtreet, for indulging in a little more foppery reſs than the ſultan or viſier, whom he may meet incognito, ap- es. If a Chriſtian ſtrikes a Mahometan, he is moſt commonly put ath on the ſpot, or at leaſt ruined by fines and ſeverely baſtinadoed; if he ſtrikes, though by accident, a ſherif, or deſcendant of Maho- who wears the green turban, of whom there are thouſands in ſome s, it is death without remiſſion.

he Turkiſh language is derived from the Zagutai, a dialect of the arian. It is the eaſieſt of any we are acquainted with, becauſe it e moſt regular. It has only one conjugation of verbs, one declenſion ns, and no gender. There is no exception nor any irregular verb un in the language. It is not very copious, yet it is manly, ener- , and ſonorous. To ſupply the want of words, their writers fre- ly mix with it the Arabic and Perſian. The Greeks ſpeak a rniſed Greek, and in the Aſiatic provinces the Arabic and a dia- of the Syriac is ſpoken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows ur paternoſter:

*ter hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagiaſthito to onoma ſou: na erti ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to homas doze hemas ſemoren; kæ ſichoraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, mas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou hemas adikoun: kæ meu ternes hemas is ſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kaxo.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late profeſſed a ign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native ry of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, ous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in ge- are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various

abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The
ſeldom extends farther than reading the Tur
Koran, and writing a common letter. Their jur
conſiſt only of commentaries on the Koran; thei
and their chemiſtry alchemy; of the hiſtory and g
tries they are perfectly ignorant. Some of them
ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; b
being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraor

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Theſe have fu

voluminous publications. Theſe countries con
and magnificent, in architecture and ſculpture
rity of the Turks, nor the depredations they ha
ropeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number.
perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, i
all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. M
are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek
diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. A
of curioſities, we ſhall ſelect ſome of the moſt ſt

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, betwee
Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, a
Cœlo-Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay
judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was atten
The portico of the temple of Heliopolis
though diſfigured by two Turkiſh towers.
hind is now known only by the magnificence
were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſt
a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and
temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined,
an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty colu
three pieces, joined together by iron pins, wit
thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in di
Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns
A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſ
front, and fifteen in flank, and every-where
figures in alto-relievo, and the heads of gods, he
the weſt of this temple is another, of a circular
and Ionic order, but diſfigured with Turkiſh
The other parts of this ancient city are prop
ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerni
immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia a
but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of A
they are of different æras; and though that
may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the bo
ture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the
the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a
tian æra, though we cannot refer them to t
Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew litt
building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſen
ed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are
chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular tem
of the ancient ruins. A free-ſtone quarry in
niſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; a
quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, i

feet five inches deep; its weight muſt be 1135 tons. A coarſe marble quarry, at a great diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental

pyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the deſert, is d in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about 33 deg. of N. lat. and iles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a nar- in, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening nce, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to nd in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by ites of it, which have been drawn and publiſhed by Mr. Wood; with his friends, viſited it ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve emembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies hem, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpe- as he can form no very adequate idea of the ruins from a printed n. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, les, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, o diſperſed and diſjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form lea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted e miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

othing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a formerly ten miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of now are tracts of barren, uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great king- that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the weſtern nations, the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent ed ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, h have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The ics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to noon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hi- In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc ny; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower re, about the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the laſt king of Pal- , was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for ſome time; and Lon- , the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Unwilling to ſubmit to Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her dpal nobility, and, among others, the excellent Longinus. He af- ards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended s ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the , the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the nyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there be no doubt but the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The eror Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its preſent wretched e. It has been obſerved, very juſtly, that its architecture, and the portions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of hec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boaſted antiquities ſhown by the reek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known

to have been so often razed to the ground, scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings ca those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, a veliers to every spot mentioned in the Old a are, it is true, under severe contributions t still goes on, though much diminished in its p Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be Constantine the Great, is still standing, and ture; but its different divisions, and the disp chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of built by the same lady are found in Palestin tered in its appearance and qualities, that it i of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David a fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and w come a desert. Thus oppression soon thinn Italy; and the noted countries of Greece the glory of the world, are now nearly dest people.

Mecca and Medina are curiosities only thr Mahometans. Their buildings are mean wh houses or churches; and even the temple of tecture, makes but a mean appearance, th where the great prophet is said to have bee said of the mosque at Medina, where that i n the vast sums spent yearly by the Mah me a places, are undoubtedly converted to tempor Euphrates and Tigris, where some superfli have sought the situation of Paradise, there doubtedly deserve that name. The different prettily magnificent, that are to be found in not be appropriated with any certainty to great is the ignorance in which they have years past. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen: bu come from their inscriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now cal valuable curiosities. The same may be said other places, celebrated in antiquity. The s distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is k posite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name magnus into a wonderful river. A temple of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso, in Caria, a some kind in the neighbourhood, are among entire. Three theatres of white marble, and ces, near Latasia, have suffered very little fr some travelers think they discern the ruins o Diana, near Ephesus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. The same because they have little or no trade, and are g ancient grandeur. Scanderoon stands upon but it is now almost depopulated. Superb ren in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, pr among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It i

ſuperior in its buildings and conveniences to moſt of the Turkiſh
The houſes, as uſual in the eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a
all to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with
, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo,
s ſuburbs, are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall
on the higheſt of which the citadel, or caſtle, is erected, but of no
ſtrength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places
into gardens, ſurround the city, which was eſtimated by the late
Ruſſel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Chriſ-
and 5000 Jews; but at preſent, according to Mr. Eton, it does
ontain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken
ſince 1770. Whole ſtreets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned.
furniſhed with moſt of the conveniences of life, excepting good
within the walls, and even that is ſupplied with an aqueduct,
about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena.
ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are
very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vine-
olive, fig, and piſtachio trees: but the country round is rough and
. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſi-
n caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their ware-
, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. This city abounds in neat,
ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very
ſhing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long,
ow, arched, or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of
aſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high
ry; and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European mer-
s live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of
Turkiſh empire, in conſequence of particular capitulations with the
e. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality
on horſeback, with a number of ſervants before them, according
eir rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are
h reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh, eſpecially, with marks
iſtinction.

agdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is ſuppoſed, from the ſite of
ent Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the
ropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century.
city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form
n irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its
ation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has
a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo,
weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built
brick and cement, and arched over to admit of the free circulation
he air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs,
the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes
alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall
tation of orange trees. The number of houſes is computed at
000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the baſhaw, which is
ulated to produce 300,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which their
ieſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive,
d with ſhops of all kinds of merchandiſe, to the number of 12,000.
ſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the
e, as were alſo their bagnios, and almoſt every thing here worthy
notice of a traveller. The population of Bagdad has, however,
atly declined within theſe few years. The plague of 1773 carried off
-thirds of the inhabitants, who now ſcarcely amount to 20,000; for
e, as at Aleppo, whole ſtreets and bazars are deſolate. In this city are

five moſques, two of which are well built, an
covered with varniſhed tiles of ſeveral colours
mitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſ
weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, whic
commands the river, conſiſting of curtains and
large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in
year 1779 they were ſo honey-combed and bad,
ſupport one firing. Below the caſtle, by the w
the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſu
which make a fine appearance. The Arabians
under the caliphs were remarkable for the puri
dialect.

Ancient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh C
it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is C
neveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan i
part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence
beg. Orfar, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of
ſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and ch
nufacture of Turkey leather. Monſul is alſo
large place, ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the T
neveh formerly ſtood.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, now no longer ſubject
peopled by Chriſtians. The natives of this c
like race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a l
a fine appearance; all the houſes are of ſtone,
roofs, which ſerve as walks for the women, bu
narrow; its inhabitants being about 30,000.
of a mountain, by the ſide of the river Kur, an
walls, except on the ſide of the river. It has a
clivity of a mountain, which is a place of
debtors, and the garriſon conſiſts of native Per
Greek churches in Teflis, ſeven Armenian,
church; the Mahometans who are here have no
bourhood of the city are many pleaſant houſes
Georgians, in general, are, by ſome travellers,
people in the world; and ſome think that the
tice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They n
and drinking wines in their capital, and othe
has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberti
they have formed an alliance with Ruſſia, und
clius; as has the czar or prince Solomon, ſove
ſtrict between the Caſpian and Black Seas,
his ſubjects (all of the Greek religion) by ridi
boots.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and
their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham,
by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It cont
was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is fa
ſuch as ſword-blades, knives, and the like, the
is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water
facture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks, called dam
carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and wor
tracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits
bourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecial
light in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said,
in the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, a

yre, now called Sur, about twenty miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo fa- formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a miſerable fiſhermen, who live among the ruins of its ancient gran-. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide, of ſtone, eighteen feet , and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more a mile and a half, and Chriſtians and Mahometans make up the ber of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are viſible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he ſaw, obſerves that they were ſeven feet and a half lower than the ground n which the preſent city ſtands. Paſſing by Tyre (ſays our author, o deſerves much praiſe for ſome happy elucidations of ſcripture), I e to be a mournful witneſs of the truth of that prophecy, 'That re, Queen of Nations, would be a rock for fiſhers to dry their nets '.' Two wretched fiſhermen, with miſerable nets, having juſt given r their occupation, with very little ſucceſs, I engaged them, at the ence of their nets, to drag in thoſe places where they ſaid ſhell-fiſh ght be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous pur- fiſh. I did not ſucceed; but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as old fiſhers had ever been. The purple fiſh at Tyre ſeems to have en only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as had they pended upon the fiſh for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied nothing elſe but fiſhing, they would not have coloured twenty yards cloth in a year †.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Ly- ia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or mmia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſ- ry, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs ver her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land han maintains themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up he circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travel- rs, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that as been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, ertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judæa, the moſt deſpica- le at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of heir own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in he moſt gloomy colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concern- ng it, which, being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have mpoſed upon weak Chriſtians ‡.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of the government deſtroys

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. i. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing con- ſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barreneſs, (ſays he) of which ſome au- thors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine," ſays Mr. Wood," we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, in
and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind,
tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantage
nature has, as it were, thrown under the feet of t
ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advan
Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carrie
the ancient world, are overlooked. The Turks
tion of the Red Sea, which opens a communi
ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of
looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſitua
upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe fro
cates on the ſouth with the Mediterranean Sea, t
ſage to all the European nations, as well as the
ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with th
paſſage, by means of the Danube and other gre
terior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commo
largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produce
themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets,
The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſi
and dyeing ſtuffs, they generally export without g
ditional value for their own labour. The inter
empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely
nians. In their traffic with Europe the Turks a
The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europea
their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turke
They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and ar
few coaſting veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey, their cl
on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Tu
merce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their gover
of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe
of one another, ſecure to the Turks the poſſeſſion
the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, migh
merce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade wi

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The T
commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhoc
arbitrary power. But from the accounts of ſir Ja
ſided at the Porte, in quality of ambaſſador from
it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic goverm
moderated by the power of religion. For though
is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights
rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to t
done at an inconſiderable expenſe. Even Jews a
this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands t
and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held,
ſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to tre
Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution alt
ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attem
ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is fo
laws of religion. Were he to tranſgreſs theſe laws,
infidel and ceaſe to be the lawful ſovereign. T
extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran,
by Mahomet both as a political code and as a
The laws there enacted, having all the force of re
ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil

ns are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain aw where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitu- s of the prophet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſh- nt.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who d their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ing in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, le they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of the emperor, o ſeldom calls for the head or the eſtate of a ſubject who is not an mediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the rkiſh government are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of e, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great icers in Turkey, of whom the viſier, or prime miniſter; the kiaja, ond in power to the viſier; the reis-effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate; and e aga of the janiſaries, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as e mufti, or high prieſt, the paſhas, or governors of provinces, the il judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed, by their applica- on and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the ildren of Tartar or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the hool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for bilities as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, in- rigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in a humble ank; and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe ey are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they ave attained. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

Revenues.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſub- jects, not of the Mahometan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of thirty ſhillings a year; tradeſmen fifteen ſhillings, and common labour- ers ſix ſhillings and ten pence halfpenny. Another branch of the re- venue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other na- tions bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. Theſe form what are called the *miri*, and amount to about four millions and a half ſterling. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of *preſents*. Theſe harpies, to in- demnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The de- voted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportu- nity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched with the imperial de- cree, to take off his head. The unhappy paſha receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, "*Thy will of God and the emperor be done*," or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſ- tifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes

[illegible] which the officer has ready in hi
[illegible] his own neck, and said a short prayer,
[illegible] on the floor, and drawing the cord tight
[illegible] head is cut off, and carried to court.

[illegible] The militia of the Turkish empire is c
[illegible] lands appointed for their maintenan
[illegible] of the treasury. Those that have certa
[illegible] effective men. Besides these, there
[illegible] the tributary countries of this
[illegible] Moldavians, and, till of late, the
[illegible] their respective princes. The kha
[illegible] country was subjected to Russia, w
[illegible] men, and to serve in person, when the g
[illegible] war, besides the above forces, ther
[illegible] at their own charge, in exp
[illegible] These adventurers do not only pr
[illegible] but are taught, that if they d
[illegible] they shall go immediately to Paradise.
[illegible] the treasury are called the spal
[illegible] about 12,000; and the janisaries,
[illegible] in the Turkish armies,
[illegible] in an engagement. These amou
[illegible] in and near Constantinopl
[illegible] and have proceeded so far someti
[illegible] They are educated in the seraglio, and tr
[illegible] from their infancy; and there are no
[illegible] over every province of the e
[illegible] in this body, to enjoy th
[illegible] which are very great, being subject to no ju
[illegible] chief commander. Mr. Eton states
[illegible] the whole of the Turkish infa
[illegible]; making a total of 388,00
[illegible] who belong to the fleet,
[illegible] where the fleet is; the garrison
[illegible] and frontiers in Europe and A
[illegible] when the grand-signor takes the
[illegible] serve the visier, the beglerbegs, and
[illegible] the remainder of effective men w
[illegible] Yet the Porte, (adds he) has often found
[illegible] men; and, in 1774, with its utmost
[illegible] 142,000.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are
[illegible] of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his
[illegible] *Brother to the Sun and Moon*,
[illegible] The grand-signor's arms are, vert,
[illegible] with a turban, charged with three black plum
[illegible] motto, *Dimec totum impleat orbem*.

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in
[illegible] who are designed for the state, the army, o
[illegible] preferred till about forty years of age, a
[illegible] They are generally the children of Chris
[illegible] in war, purchased, or presents from the vicero
[illegible] provinces, the most beautiful, well-made, ar
[illegible] that can be met with, and are always reviewed and
[illegible] grand-signor, before they are sent to the colleges o
[illegible] are educated for employments according to thei

ladies of the ſeraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, ſent as preſents from the provinces and the Greek iſlands, moſt of e children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, years ſince, aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The num. women in the haram depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. Selim had two thouſand; Achmet had but three hundred; and eſent ſultan has nearly 1600. On their admiſſion, they are com- to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, g, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt s and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *katon* or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation: that is entered ſerves her who preceded her, and herſelf. Theſe are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand- removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs s them to the boats, which are incloſed with lattices and linen ns; and when they go by land, they are put into cloſe chariots, and are made at certain diſtances, to give notice than none approach oads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quick- and ſome dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diverſion of his ſly.

RIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be con- d by that warlike and hardy race of men who inhabit the vaſt try known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the ns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks Turcomans, which name ſignifies *wanderers*, extended its conqueſts r various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the ian to the Straits of the Dardenelles. Being long reſident, in the city of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced octrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the s of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neigh- hood of Mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia r, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, ſeized that kingdom about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages ver the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make erts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for in- ng and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were times commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of aliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of line; and the viſiting of the holy city of Jeruſalem being then of the Chriſtian exerciſes in which they had been tolerated by the ens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy con- tions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inha- ts of the country, as gave riſe to the famous cruſades, which we have ioned more fully in the Introduction.

unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and gh, after oceans of blood where ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected ruſalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors poſſeſſed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about ear 1229, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed

themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fin
Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman n
it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hen
Othmans from that leader; the appellation of
the original, *wanderers* or *baniſhed men*, bein
a term of reproach. Othman is to be ſtyled th
empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the
are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1
leſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Am
his empire at Adrianople, which he took in th
the order of janiſaries was eſtabliſhed. Such w
Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defe
Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in ho
Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence
Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned fr
to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle w
rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain wh
thridates, when Bajazet's army was cut to piec
priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring
left the Turks more powerful than ever; and
checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hu
Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually
of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſi
Conſtantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an ex
from its firſt commencement under Conſtanti
Greek empire: an event which had been long
to many cauſes; the chief was the total degene
rors themſelves, their courts and families, and
had to the popes and the weſtern church,—one
ing publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he w
than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of
the Turks, when they extended their conquet
but reduced the nations to ſubjection, the rema
ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, partic
and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though un
they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patri
Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem; and th
patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the G
of their people being richer and more conver
that the modern Greeks, though pining under
the Turkiſh government, ſtill retain ſomewh
pearance, though nothing of the internal princi
their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed
Greece: and from this time the Turks have bee
ropean power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by
on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians
Egypt. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, becam
by family differences, and at laſt, by order o
was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician. Selim after
brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many o
man race. He defeated the Perſians and the p
but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he

…t, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own domi…, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſ… Gaza, and many other towns.

…e was ſucceeded in 1520 by his ſon Soliman the Magnificent, …, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the …ſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland Malta, which was given them by the emperor, Charles V. The …n of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian …ers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda, …metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off …200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced …Auſtria, and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of …rles V. He miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the iſle of …ta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever …d the throne of Othman.

…le was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon Selim II. In his reign the …kiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in …battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the …kiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially …Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and …nis in Africa from the Moors; he was ſucceeded in 1575 by his …, Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Taurus, Teflis, and …ny other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important for…ſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593 he was ſucceeded by Maho…et III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed by his ordering …eteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concu…nes, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. …e was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of …e plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor Achmet was beaten by the …rians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent …t he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a …nce of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being un…ceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janiſaries, whoſe …wer he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded in 1623, and …ok Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him …1640; a worthleſs inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janiſaries in …48. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his …nd viſier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it …d been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, …d their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A …oody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which …e latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were …rced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by …ohn Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet …as, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his …rother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during his reign, and …hat of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet I.—but Muſtapha II. who …ounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon. After …me briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace …f Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, was concluded in …699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, …nd his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince …ho gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a …war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſ…

sian army was surrounded without hopes of escap
the grand vifier to the peace, by a present of all
jewels, that were in the army: but the Russians de
Asoph, Kaminieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed
He had afterwards a war with the Venetians,
Christian powers. The scene of action was tr
where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave
feats to the infidels, that they were forced to
peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate
under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace d
the vifier, the chief admiral, and secretary, wh
struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and
to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars
at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of
that, engaged in a war with the Imperialists and
former he was victorious; but the successes of th
ened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree
the emperor, and, after that, another with the
greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III.
was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III. wh
January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessf
sians, of which some account has been already
that country. In the course of this war, a co
was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, w
the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fl
Minorca, departed from thence in the beginni
and shaped its course for the Morea. Count O
such land forces as he had with him at Maina,
westward of Cape Metapan, and about fifty mi
Misitra, the ancient Sparta, the Mainotes, the
cedæmonians, and who still possessed the country
der subjection to the grand-signor, immediately
every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousan
to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greek
their example, or rather only waited to hear of
sians to do what they had long intended; and the
every where in motion. The open country was
Misitra, Arcadia, and several other places, as sp
Russian ships, that had been separated, or that
successively, and landed their men in different
small detachment soon swelled into a little army
every where attacked or intercepted. In the m
gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every
Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury w
tants of the continent were seized extended itsel
also the Turks were massacred in great numbers.
unable to make head against the Russians and Gr
only protection was found within the fortresses.
so much increased since the first debarkation of
invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the
several other places of less note. But whilst th
these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand me
Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, com
kier, pasha of Bosnia. This Turkish general recover

the peninſula as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that e found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. e Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame e, another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſtone, ived from England to re-inforce count Orlow's armament. The urkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in e channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the ſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, nſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, be- es a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to ar thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſail of the line, and five igates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, while others both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently ar. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they fought th the greateſt fury, and at length ran ſo cloſe, that they locked emſelves together, with grapling-irons and other tackling. In this nation the Ruſſians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, ſet e Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and, as they could not now be diſentangled, th ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully cir- mſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew with a moſt terrible explofion. The commanders and principal ncers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt otally loſt. The dreadful fate of thoſe ſhips, as well as the danger to hoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; fter which the action was renewed, and continued till night without y material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark the urkiſh fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coaſt of Na- ſia; the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the ight ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh eet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf di- ected the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effec- ually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and few galleys, that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroy- d; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and can- onaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, hat a ſhot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both ere reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige eft, at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had een all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war be- ween Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account f the former empire, we ſhall here only add, that after a moſt unfor- unate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded be- ween them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months fter the acceſſion of Achmet IV. The emperor Muſtapha III. left a on, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the eins of government in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, luſtapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to ſucceed him in he throne; and to this prince, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommend- tion, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic rmies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than an xcellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great

ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered th
ble. The extenſion, as well as duration of thei
be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitu
a corps originally compoſed of children of ſu
could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected
ed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of
ſeraglio. They were generally in the number
excellent was their diſcipline, that they were de
and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh
man power is in a declining ſtate. The political
the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is
this empire, and the principal reaſon why the
world are ſuffered to remain any longer in the poſ
infidels.

Notwithſtanding the peace which was eſtabli
Ruſſia and the Porte, various ſources of diſcord h
very little tranquillity could ſubſiſt between them
theſe we refer our readers to our hiſtorical narra
pire. Towards the latter end of the year 178
have adopted a regular ſyſtem of indirect hoſtili
was continually making ſuch encroachments as
ſolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarcel
turned from the ſplendid journey which ſhe mad
declaration of Turkiſh hoſtilities was announced
part the emperor of Germany would take in this
known. The capriciouſneſs of his character kep
in ſuſpenſe for ſome little time; but he ſoon decla
to ſupport all the claims which Ruſſia had upon t

Inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidable
that had broken out againſt them, the Turks a
redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. Bu
greatly to have contributed to the bad ſucceſs exp
in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the
on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make ſuitable allowances fo
der which he laboured as a deſpotic monarch, an
country, may be allowed to poſſeſs ſome claim to
the throne of Conſtantinople without reflecting
nature. His temper appears to have been mild
only permitted Selim, his nephew, ſon of the late
even publicly acknowledged him for his ſucceſſ
ſtained with ſo many arbitrary murders as thoſ
nor did he think it at all neceſſary that a diſgrace
at once with his office and his life. He ſuffer
improve by the arts and military diſcipline of
prime miniſter, during the laſt three years of h
means conſiſtently great, muſt be allowed to deſ
will be better known to poſterity as the patron of
of the Encyclopédie, than as the victorious and ſ
ſtrian arms in the Bannat of Tranſylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterpriſing age of ſixty
Third ſucceeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour
it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſomething
firſt propoſed to put himſelf at the head of his
as might be expected from his effeminate educatio

l ridiculous project. But he conceived that at leaſt it became him untenance the miniſters of his predeceſſor, to confound their nd reverſe all their proceedings. Theſe miniſters required in legree the confidence of thoſe who acted under their command; appeared in the ſequel that the fantaſtic ſplendour of a new and e ſovereign could not compenſate for the capricious and arbitrary s with which his acceſſion was accompanied.

he year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow ſurrendered to the arms of , as will be found in the hiſtory of that country; and on the 12th tember, 1789, the Auſtrian forces ſat down before Belgrade, and hat good fortune which ſeemed almoſt conſtantly to attend their nder, marſhal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous on, ſurrendered, after a vigorous reſiſtance, on the 8th of Octo- The reſt of the campaign was little elſe than a ſucceſſion of the portant ſucceſſes; and a circumſtance that did not a little con- to this, was the ſyſtem adopted by the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, ring the Turkiſh troops to march out of the ſeveral places they ied without moleſtation. Buchareſt, the capital of Wallachia, ithout oppoſition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Aker- on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Ruſſians; and Bender ſur- d to prince Potemkin, not without ſuſpicion of ſiniſter practices, e 15th of November. One only check preſented itſelf to the allied The garriſon of Orſova diſplayed the moſt inflexible conſtancy, marſhal Laudohn was obliged to raiſe the ſiege of this place in the le of December, after having ſat down before it for a period of eeks. In a ſhort time after the ſiege was renewed, and Orſova educed the 16th of April, 1790.

ter the reduction of Orſova, the war was carried on with languor e part of Auſtria; and in the month of June a conference was d upon at Reichenbach, at which the miniſters of Pruſſia, Auſtria, and, and the United Provinces aſſiſted, and at which alſo an envoy Poland was occaſionally preſent. After a negotiation, which con- d till the 17th of Auguſt, it was agreed that a peace ſhould be con- d between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the of this treaty ſhould be a general ſurrender of all the conqueſts by the former, retaining only Choczim as a ſecurity till the Porte d accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was alſo to be re- d. On the other hand, the king of Pruſſia gave up the Belgic pro- s, and even promiſed his aſſiſtance in reducing them to the Auſ- dominions.

he king of Pruſſia was leſs ſucceſsful in his mediation with Ruſſia. atrine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at ſtake, which, ſubſtantial as it is, has always its charms with thoſe who are educated habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conqueſts alſo, on ide of Turkey, were too important to be eaſily relinquiſhed; and conſidered her dignity attacked by the inſolent ſtyle of Pruſſian iation. The ſubſtance of her anſwer to the Pruſſian memorial was efore. "That the empreſs of Ruſſia would make peace and war whom ſhe pleaſed, without the interference of any foreign er."

he campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Ruſſia, with the taking Maczin, on the 4th of April, by the prince Gallitzin; and in a ſub- ent victory, on the 12th, by the ſame general, in the neighbourhood Brailow, the Turks loſt not leſs than 4000 men, and upwards o. 100 ns, beſides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Ruſſian arms

experienced a check, by which they loſt about
liged to relinquiſh their intention of beſieging
forcing this place, the viſier proceeded to the
near Siliſtria; and by means of a bridge which
ver, his advanced poſts were enabled to make
ſite ſide. The ability of the viſier, and the valo
however exerted in vain againſt the diſcipline a
pean armies. In the month of June 15,000 T
a party of cavalry under general Kutuſow.
fortreſs of Anape was taken by general Gudow
to the amount of 6000 men, made priſoners. T
on the 9th of the ſame month, by a ſignal vi
nin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,
the Turkiſh army. The Ottomans left upwards
field of battle, and loſt their entire camp-equ
pieces of cannon. The Ruſſians are ſaid to have
and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorouſly carried o
were not inactive. Great Britain and Pruſſia,
themſelves determined to ſupport the balance o
the empreſs to peace upon the baſis of a *ſtatus qu*
of Britain in this diſpute, we have treated m
place. To the firſt application of the Engliſ
anſwered in nearly the ſame terms in which ſh
the memorial of Pruſſia—"That the Britiſh co
mitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the
tion, however, her demands became more moder
ern powers, and particularly Denmark, began t
the prevention of hoſtilities, ſhe confined her vi
Oczakow, with the diſtrict extending from the B
even then providing for the free navigation of
negotiation was protracted to the 11th of Au
peace was concluded between the czarina and t
theſe terms—terms which, conſidering the ill ſu
not be accounted very diſadvantageous to the
a fortreſs more uſeful for the purpoſe of annoyi
fending their own territories; but certainly of
to Ruſſia, which, by this ceſſion, has ſecured the
the Crimea.

It is computed that in this war Turkey loſt 2
ſia, 100,000; the Auſtrians, who fell in battle
marſhes, are ſuppoſed to exceed 130,000.

The treacherous and wanton invaſion of Egypt b
without even the pretence that the Porte had gi
offence, juſtly provoked the Turks to declare wa
as the hoſtilities which have hitherto taken place
have been almoſt entirely confined to the attack
towns in Syria, of which an account is given el
ſary to repeat it here.

Selim III. grand-ſignor, born in 1761, ſucce
Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late ſultan,

# TARTARY IN ASIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 4000 / Breadth 2400 | between | 50 and 150 East long. / 30 and 72 North lat. |

DARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with ese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its tent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the North; by the Ocean on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, outh; and by Muscovy on the West.

| d divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ast division | Kamtschatka Tartars | Kamtschatka | |
| | Jakutskoi Tartars | Jakutskoi | |
| ast division | Bratski | Bratski | |
| | Thibet and Mogul Tartars | Thibet | 985,380 |
| | | Poion | |
| | | Kudak | |
| west division | Samoieda | Mangasia | |
| | Ostiack | Kortskoi | |
| west division | Circassian and Astracan Tartary | Terki | |
| | | Astracan | |
| e division | Siberia | Tobolsk | |
| | Kalmue Tartary | Bocharia | 850,000 |
| | Usbeck Tartary | Samarcand | 339,840 |

tschatka is a great peninsula, which extends from north to south seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, retsk, Tigilskaia Krepost, Verchnei, or Upper Kamtschatkoi , and Nisinei or Lower Kamtschatkoi Ostrog.

UNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, e mountains of Taurus and Ararat, so contiguous to it, that they like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia Mongalia to the Indies: and the mountains of Stolp, in the .

S.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Cas- ea.

VERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course o thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the l, Irtis, Genesa or Jenska; the Burrumpooter; the Lena, and the n, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

E, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is different, by reason of its vast extent from North to South; the ern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the south- ering in the same latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of ey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are m
the earth, which is covered with ſnow nin
extremely barren, and every where incun
marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and imp
climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pur
Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants, in all p
extreme old age, if they were not ſo much
uſe of intoxicating liquors. Siberia prod
almoſt to the 60th degree of northern lati
turneps, and cucumbers, thrive here toleral
other greens. All experiments to bring frui
been in vain: but there is reaſon to believe
may at length overcome the rudeneſs of
ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow
as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well
gether with vari us edible roots, are found
there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtracan,
Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing mor
The parts that are cultivated produce excel
kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes
largeſt aud fineſt in the world. The ſumm
the end of July to the beginning of October
ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quant
who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador
parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile c
ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The
higheſt in Aſia, and is a part of that elevate
the rivers of India and China, and thoſe of
Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid th
gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazul
large teeth found here have occaſioned
whether they belong to elephants or fiſhes.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromed
the other land and amphibious animals that
ern parts of Europe. Their horſes are of
and very hardy: as they run wild till they a
are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan,
Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſometh
has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag th
more; he wades near the edge of a river,
of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drive
he gobbles as many of them as he can into
aſhore, eats them, or carries them to his yo
this bird to be the pelican.

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked wit
of which are not to be found in other countr
habitants with food and clothes; and, at t
with commodities for an advantageous tra
dered as the native country of black foxe
ſkins of which are here ſuperior to thoſe o
Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and f
grunniens of Linnæus, or grunting ox, w
Thibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, fu
and ſilky texture. Thoſe tails are a conſid

Thibet. The Indians faſten ſmall bundles of the hair to a han- which they uſe for fly-flaps; the Chineſe dye tufts of it with a tiful ſcarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as or- ents to their ſtandards, by ſome erroneouſly called horſe-tails.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. We can form no probable conjecture as to number of the inhabitants in Tartary; but, from many circumſtances, muſt conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the ex- of their country. They are in general ſtrong made ſtout men; r faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but y quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin m by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Cir- ian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for pa- s there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the glios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed, en young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit ir capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. e Tartars are, in general, a wandering ſort of people. In their pere- nations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being equently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they me to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their ighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; ith this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their omen. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. hey avoid all labour, as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is nding their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are gry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and ork like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves they are very hoſpitable, nd wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially ut themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy, heerful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by are or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the north- rn and independent Tartars, and ſome nations of Canada, in North merica: particularly, when any of their people are infirm through reat age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a mall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch ccaſions, they ſay they do their parents a good office in ſending them o a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of he Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hi- ſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſel- dom appear on foot. They are dexterous in ſhooting at a mark, info-

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland ar
the earth, which is covered with fo
extremely barren, and every whe
marſhes, uninhabited mountains
climate of Siberia is cold, but
Tooke obſerves, that its inha
extreme old age, if they w
uſe of intoxicating liqu
almoſt to the 60th de
turneps, and cucumb
other greens. All
been in vain: but
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Tartary,
The par
kinds
larges
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ghter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants
them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nati
ſuch other in their manner of living, religi
nances. But in this they agree, that none
which is carried on by ſome Tartars, an
Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle,
The population of Siberia has been much
a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have f
towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtan
a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent,
ſeveral millions more than it at preſent conta
cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to th
our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tarta
civil government, and is commonly accor
neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometa
and even popiſh religions. Some of them a
worſhip little rude images, dreſſed up in rag
with whom they make very free in caſe
purſuit.

But the religion and government of the
Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary bordering up
markable, and the moſt worthy of attention
verned by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama,
to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great
the various tribes of heathen Tartars who r
of continent which ſtretches from the bank
on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the
gerent of the Deity on earth; but, as ſupe

its object, the more remote Tartars ab-
himſelf. They believe him to be im-
ledge and virtue. Every year they
ip and make rich offerings at
o is a Manchou Tartar, does
ligious capacity, though
ains, at a great expenſe,
eputed, as his nuncio, from
reputed the moſt orthodox
the Grand Lama ſeems to die
oul in fact only quits a crazy habi-
or better, and it is diſcovered again
certain tokens, known only to the lamas
always appears. In 1774, the Grand La-
nad been diſcovered ſome time before by the
n authority and ſanctity of character, is next to
nd, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas,
moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the
ne prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up
nastic orders, which are held in great veneration among them.
reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a moun-
in near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about ſeven miles from La-
ſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company made a treaty with the Lama
1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs
rom that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to
t. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly
reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be
n heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a
oly place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hun-
dred in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the
Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions,
which are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and controul, but who, nevertheleſs, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſtitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as being vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs; and, in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtracan and

the kingdom of Kaſan, and other provinces, ſpected through all the neighbouring countries.

The fame of Tamerlane has been more perm gis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor B in the hiſtory of that nation. The honour of him is claimed not only by all the Khans and p but by the emperor of Hindooſtan himſelf. Th is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by ſituated in the latitude of 32 degrees 15 minut from the once famous city of Samarcand, the bi the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe c merable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are khans, or leaders, who, upon particular eme khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtra and who can frequently bring into the field 1 chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, whi according to the chance of war and other occaſio minions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces, under h century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes, who ha again ſeparated, and have ſince continued diſtin on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the the Turkiſh empires, each of whom are puſhing this extenſive, and, in ſome places, fertile country bute, or acknowledgment of their dependency up powerful neighbours, who treat them with caut friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utm powers with whom they are allied. Some tribe dependency: and when united, they form a pow have been very formidable to their neighbours, neſe.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting t cient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dr lar troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill for proviſions.

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## THE EMPIRE OF CHI

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 1450 | between | 20 and 42 North la |
| Breadth 1200 | | 98 and 123 Eaſt long |
| | | Chineſe Tartary. |

BOUNDARIES.] CHINA is bounded by Tart ſtone wall of five hundred the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides i

, on the eaſt; by the Chineſian Sea, ſouth; and by Tonquin, the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on weſt.

Chineſe Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by Gulf of Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Sea; on the ſouth by China; d on the weſt by the country of the Calmouks, who are eſtabliſhed tween the Caſpian Sea and Caſgar.

Eaſtern Tartary extends north and ſouth from the 41ſt to the 55th gree of north latitude, and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree longitude to the Eaſtern Sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; n the ſouth by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the aſtern Sea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The untry is divided into three grand departments, the provinces of Chen-ng, Kirin, and Tritcicar; of which the chief towns are Mougdon, irin, and Tritcicar.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.] The empire of China is divided to fifteen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, po-ulouſeſs, and opulence, rank as a diſtinct kingdom. The following tement of the diviſion, population, and extent of China Proper, was livered to lord Macartney, at his requeſt, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chi-ſe mandarin, and is founded on authentic documents, taken from one f the public offices in Pekin.

| Provinces. | Population. | Sq. Miles. | Acres. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Pe-che-lee | 38,000,000 | 58,949 | 37,727,360 |
| Kiang-nan, 2 provinces | 32,000,000 | 92,961 | 59,495,040 |
| Kiang-ſee | 19,000,000 | 72,176 | 46,192,640 |
| Tche-kiang | 21,000,000 | 39,150 | 25,056,000 |
| Fo-chen | 15,000,000 | 53,480 | 34,227,200 |
| Hou-pe | 14,000,000 | 144,770 | 92,652,800 |
| Hou-nan (Hou-quang) | 13,000,000 | | |
| Ho-nan | 25,000,000 | 65,104 | 41,666,560 |
| Chang-tung | 24,000,000 | 65,104 | 41,666,560 |
| Chan-ſee | 27,000,000 | 55,268 | 53,371,520 |
| Chen-ſee | 18,000,000 | 154,008 | 98,565,120 |
| Kan-ſore | 12,000,000 | | |
| Se-chueen | 27,000,000 | 166,800 | 106,752,000 |
| Canton | 21,000,000 | 79,456 | 50,851,840 |
| Quang-ſee | 10,000,000 | 78,250 | 50,080,000 |
| Yu-nan | 8,000,000 | 107,969 | 69,100,160 |
| Koei-cheou | 9,000,000 | 64,554 | 41,314,560 |
| Total | 333,000,000 | 1,297,999 | 830,719,360 |

With reſpect to this ſtatement, ſir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late Engliſh embaſſy to China, obſerves, that "the extent of the provinces is aſcertained by aſtronomical obſervations, as well as by admeaſurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each diviſion of a diſtrict by a tything-man, or every tenth maſter of a family. Thoſe returns are collected by officers reſident ſo near as to be capable of correcting any groſs miſtake: and all the returns are lodged in the great regiſter at Pekin.—Though the general ſtatement is ſtrictly the reſult of thoſe returns added to each other, which ſeem little liable to error, or, taken ſeparately, to doubt, yet the amount of the whole is ſo prodigious as to ſtagger belief. It muſt, however, be recollected, that population in China is

not subject to be materially diminished by wa
and a few officers only, natives of the ancie
were engaged in the conquest of Western Ta
war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military
Chinese. The number of manufacturers, who
ways favourable to health, whose constant e
spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atm
ous, and whose residence in towns exposes the
but a very small proportion to that of husban
neral there seem to be no other bounds to C
those which the necessity of subsistence may p
ries are certainly more enlarged than in othe
surface of the empire is, with trifling exceptio
duction of food for man alone. There is no
pasture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans,
port of cattle of any kind. Few parks or
excepting those belonging to the emperor. Li
roads, the chief communication being by wat
mons or lands suffered to lie waste by the negle
the sport of great proprietors. No arable lan
under a hot and fertilising sun yields double
adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying
with other earths, by manure, watering, and c
of every kind. The labour of man is little div
to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and
ments of no real use. Even the soldiers of th
during the short intervals of the guards which
or the exercises or other occasional services
mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity
also by converting more species of animals an
pose than is usual in other countries. From a
fluence of all these causes, the great populat
this statement, will not, perhaps, appear sur
from it that every square mile in that vast c
average, about one-third more inhabitants,
hundred, than are found upon an equal quantit
average, in the most populous country in Europ

NAME.] It is probably derived from a C
middle, from a notion the natives have, that th
middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the n
and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the
which are the boundary between the Russian a
Crocœus, or Whamho, or the Yellow River;
River; and the Tay. Common water in Chin
is in some places boiled to make it fit for use.

BAYS.] The chief are those of Nankin and

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle th
character of a most wise and industrious people
and length of their canals are incredible. The
with hewn stone on the sides; and they are so d
vessels, and sometimes extend above 1000 miles
are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; a
some, that in China the water contains as

They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels mes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be d by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the moun- Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in that are not ſo by nature.

RESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not en- ered with foreſts or woods, though no country is better fitted for ucing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow for ornament and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

IR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according o ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the mid- mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, ful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniences, uxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice-fields, from ch the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious al- beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, are ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf.

The tallow-tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common erry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow. when manufactured with oil ſerves the natives as candles: but they ell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt varniſh the world. After all that can be ſaid of theſe, and many other beau- ful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are wedded to their ancient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all, eliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, hich, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, d indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing rafting or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental ardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw ſilk, which ſo uch abounds in China; and, above all, the *tea plant*, or ſhrub. It is lanted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriancy. "Vaſt tracts of illy land (ſays Sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in e province of Fochen. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the onvenience of collecting its leaves, which is done firſt in ſpring, and wice afterwards in the courſe of the ſummer. Its long and tender ranches ſpring up almoſt from the root without any intervening naked runk. It is buſhy like a roſe-tree, and the expanded petals of the flower ear ſome reſemblance to that of the roſe. Every information received concerning the tea plant concurred in affirming that its qualities de- ended both upon the ſoil in which it grew, and the age at which the eaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largeſt and oldeſt leaves, which are the leaſt eſteemed, and deſtined for the uſe of the loweſt claſſes of the people, are often expoſed to ſale with little previous manipulation, and ſtill re- taining that kind of vegetable taſte which is common to moſt freſh plants, but which vaniſhes in a little time, whilſt the more eſſential fla-

Dress.] This varies according to the distinctio
tirely under the regulation of the law, which has
that distinguish the different conditions. The e
the blood have alone a right to wear yellow;
entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only u
in general they are clothed in black, blue, or
worn for mourning, and cannot be too much soli
avoid every appearance of personal care and orna
which the common people are confined is blue
dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth.
their heads, of the fashion of a bell; those of q
with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and
vest and sash, a coat or gown thrown over them,
cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dress is seldom
fancy or fashion. Even among the ladies there i
dresses, except, perhaps, in the disposition of the
ments of the head. They generally wear over a
in lieu of linen, a waistcoat and drawers of silk,
cold weather with furs. Above this is worn a lon
gracefully gathered round the waist, and confin
different parts of their apparel are usually each o
the selection and contrast of which the wearers ch
They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their
line.

Marriages.] The parties never see each o
bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is g
ties are perfect children. When the nuptials are
carried (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) in a
hung round with festoons of artificial flowers, and
attendants, and servants, bearing the paraphernali
tion given with a daughter in marriage by her p
barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females i
a woman of poor family happens to have three or
it not unfrequently happens that she will expose th
or cast them into a river.

Funerals.] The Chinese, among other sup
larly scrupulous about the time and place of bury
delay occasioned before these difficult points are
long detained the coffins of the rich from their
are seen in houses and gardens under temporary r
in the mean time from the weather; but necess
overcome many of their scruples in this respect,
and with little ceremony, the remains of their
abode.

The following is the description of a Chinese
served by sir George Staunton, passing out of one
"The procession was preceded by several perform
then followed a variety of insignia, some of like
boards, with devices and characters, displaying
him who was no more. Immediately before th
lations walked, each supported by friends, occupi
from giving way to the excesses and extravagance
appearance of their countenance implied that th
the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep e
the edges. Several persons were employed to be

4

per, covered chiefly with tin-foil, as they paſſed by burying grounds d temples. Theſe pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to haron for being conveyed to the Elyſian fields, are underſtood to be nvertible, in the next ſtage of exiſtence, into the means of providing e neceſſaries of life."

The public burying-grounds are extremely extenſive, owing to that ſpect paid to the dead by the Chineſe, which prevents them from opena g a new grave upon any ſpot where the traces of a former one remain pon the ſurface.

Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the ames of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which ey frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the ther of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, d that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and ifty words, all of one ſyllable; but then each word is pronounced with ch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it comes more copious than could be eaſily imagined. The miſſiona ies, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the exreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of em very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which re amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty houſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter has ſtill continued in its original, rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvement.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves: they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in their gardening and planning their grounds, they exhibit the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning which exiſted among them was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block-printing; for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacks, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo

much that a Tartar, while at full gallop, w
arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The
ſimple, and fit for action; it generally conſiſts
narrow ſleeves, made of deer's ſkin, having th
and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of
the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſu
have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the t
and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upo
common method of living among all the nort
land eaſtward to the Japaneſe Ocean. In t
vinces, during the winter, every family burro
der ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable
tions, that they make ſubterraneous communi
ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible
immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if
tainted; which makes their cabins extremely
fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes,
it is after it has been ſmoked and dried. T
wives with cattle. In their marriages they are
tle or no difference is made between the
ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the h
ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After
ſhe is employed in menial duties, as another
attend the young wives who ſucceed to her pla
in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a
daughter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants of
them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nation
each other in their manner of living, religion
nances. But in this they agree, that none of
which is carried on by ſome Tartars, and
Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, a
The population of Siberia has been much in
a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have fou
towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtandi
a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, i
ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains
cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the
our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars
civil government, and is commonly accommo
neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan,
and even popiſh religions. Some of them are
worſhip little rude images, dreſſed up in rags.
with whom they make very free in caſe of
purſuit.

But the religion and government of the
Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary bordering upon
markable, and the moſt worthy of attention.
verned by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama, w
to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great ob
the various tribes of heathen Tartars who roam
of continent which ſtretches from the banks o
on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the ſo
gerent of the Deity on earth; but, as ſuperſti

it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars ab- regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be im- l, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they up from different parts to worſhip and make rich offerings at rine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expenſe, he palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from bet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox ng the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die her of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habi- ion to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again he body of ſome child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand La- was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the ſhoo Lama, who, in authority and ſanctity of character, is next to Grand Lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas, o form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the e, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up y monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. e reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a moun- n near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about ſeven miles from La- a. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company made a treaty with the Lama 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs om that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly ſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a oly place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hun- red in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the rand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, hich are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that f Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one upreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves s creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is l-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of en, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any ing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain that e Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the eſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under s command and controul, but who, nevertheleſs, generally act accord- g to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with ing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They kewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate d puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all rmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſti- ous notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are con- dered as being vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been eated only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look ter houſehold affairs; and, in conſequence of theſe principles, they e treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article in an ccount of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under ingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtracan and

bellished with ſtatues, nor other carving, all th
their prodigious height, which at a diſtance give
ance. The arches of the gates are built of ma
large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar.
built in a direct line; the largeſt are about 120 f
in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks an
take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very ag
ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall ki
about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, an
are written, in large characters, the names of
he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of
equal diſtance from each other, have a very pret
houſes are poorly built in front, and very low,
only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſto
buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkabl
the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much i
gance of the architecture, as the multitude of its
gardens, all regularly diſpoſed; for within the
emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by
and a multitude of artificers employed and kept
the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are
F. Artier, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged wi
and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than
ference, and that the front of the building ſhines
varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhe
is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Ind
gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground,
proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from two
which form a number of ſmall valleys, plentiful
which, uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautifu
ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are o
of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to
each other: which diverſity produces a very plea
ley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lo
lords in Europe, with all his retinue: many of th
cedar, brought, at a vaſt expenſe, the diſtance
theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are mo
incloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is ne
meter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is
ing more than a hundred apartments. It has four
elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountai
with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful
and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of ro
art as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The eſtimated population of Peking was carried
the Jeſuit Grimaldi, as quoted by Gimelli Carre
Another miſſionary reduces at leaſt that of th
million and a quarter. According to the beſt int
late Engliſh embaſſy, the whole was about three
houſes of Peking ſeem ſcarcely ſufficient for ſo
very little room is occupied by a Chineſe family,
and lower claſſes of life. A Chineſe dwelling is
by a wall ſix or ſeven feet high. Within this i
of three generations, with all their reſpective wi
frequently be found. One ſmall room is inade

mals of each branch of the family, ſleeping in different beds, divided only by mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is uſed for eating.

Nanking is ſaid to be ſtill more extenſive and populous than Peking; but Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and valleys all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeveral iron gates, and withinſide of each there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, paved with flag ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in houſes where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen or dealers in one kind of goods herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there is in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry: but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the uſe of drawing is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lampblack. The antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill perform by cutting their characters on blocks of wood, has already been mentioned. The manufacture of that earthern-ware generally known by the name of China was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulveriſed earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity *.

* The Engliſh, in particular, have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered
ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that cou
rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They
wiſe of a more durable kind; and their cotton a
mous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all
whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is th
the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures eq
it is certain, that, ſince the diſcovery of the pre
the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made i
the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Th
Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in t
word. Duty and obedience to the father of e
mended and enforced in the moſt rigorous ma
time, the emperor was conſidered as the fath
mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looke
tutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which wer
ranks to the ſuperior were ſettled and obſerve
pulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſe
This ſimple claim of obedience required great
of human nature to render it effectual; and t
Confucius particularly, appear to have been m
ties. They enveloped their dictates in a numb
ances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and
darins had peculiar modes of ſpeaking and writin
taught to believe that the princes partook of divi
ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached. "
Peking (ſays ſir George Staunton) all the manda
pital aſſembled, about noon, on his imperial m
dreſſed in their robes of ceremony, made the uſua
throne; incenſe of ſandal and roſe woods burn
time, and offerings being made of viands and li
ſent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr.
the embaſſy) was preſent while the ſame ceremo
Yuen-min-yuen, and he was informed that they
that day in every part of the empire, the proſtra
attentive to turn their faces towards the capital.
and full moon, ſimilar incenſe is burnt, and offe
the throne by the officers of the houſehold in the
emperor."

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranq
ble number of years, yet it had a fundamental
vulſed and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, beca
was not paid to the military as the civil duties.
ſions like other men; and ſometimes a weak or
drove them to arms, and a revolution eaſily ſ
juſtified by ſaying that their ſovereign had ceaſ
During their commotions, one of the parties
neighbours, the Tartars, to their aſſiſtance, who
city, became acquainted with the weak ſide of
availed themſelves accordingly, by invading and
pire, and conforming to the Chineſe inſtitutions.

Beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal ob
had ſumptuary laws and regulations for the expe

jects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, d preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions, likewise, e mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most sub- ssive manner, upon the errors of his government; and, when he was virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salu- ry effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magi- rates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as hina; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue, in e execution. The emperor is styled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Gover- r of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

Religion.] There is in China no state religion. None is paid, referred, or encouraged by it. The Chinese have no Sunday, nor ven such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every ay for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have, from me to time, made grants, though to no great amount, for the mainte- ance of their clergy, but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical tithes. he emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins of another; and e majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No ople are, in fact, more superstitious than the common Chinese. Be- de the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the priests and fe- ales, the temples are particularly frequented by the disciples of Fo, reviously to any undertaking of importance; whether to marry, go a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or ny other material event in life, it is necessary first to consult the uperintendent deity. This is performed by various methods. Some lace a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and num- ered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a ollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is ex- mined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book which the riest holds open, and sometimes even it is written upon a piece of aper pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood re by others thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark: he side that is uppermost, when fallen on the floor, is in like manner eferred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the rst throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in ratitude, and undertakes afterwards with confidence the business in gitation. But if the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time, nd the third throw determines, at any rate, the question. In other re- ects the people of the present time seem to pay little attention to eir priests. The temples are, however, always open for such as oose to consult the decrees of heaven. They return thanks when e oracle proves propitious to their wishes. Yet they often cast lots to now the issue of a projected enterprise, then supplicate for its be- g favourable, and their worship consists more in thanksgiving than prayer.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most hristian churches, some of which, as one of the missionaries has ob- rved, exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Roman ith, that a Chinese conveyed into one of the latter might imagine e votaries he saw were adoring the deities of his own country. On e altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a represen- tion which might answer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the person f *Shin-moo*, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove with a child in r arms, and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, ound her head, with tapers burning constantly before her. The re-

ſemblance of the worſhip of the Chineſe to th
church, in ſome other particulars, has been, i
ing, that ſome of the miſſionaries have conje
had formerly received a glimpſe of Chriſtianity
the way of Tartary; others that St. Thoma
among them; but the miſſionary Premare could
wiſe than by ſuppoſing it to have been a trick
the Jeſuits.

There are other images, however, in theſe
greater analogy to the ancient than to the preſe
mans. A figure, repreſenting a female, appears
to Lucina, and is particularly addreſſed by unm
huſbands, and married women wanting children.
admitting of a ſubordinate deity particularly p
which can be formed in the human mind, could
among thoſe claſſes of the people who are not
ſpects as reſulting from the natural cauſes of
not obſtructed by any meaſures of the goverm
which does not interfere with mere opinions.
which is not ſuppoſed to affect the tranquillity of

The temples of Peking are not very ſumptu
the emperor is new in China, and its worſhip
magnificence in Tartary. The mandarins, the
whom are ſelected the magiſtrates who govern
ſeſs the upper ranks of life, venerate rather
and meet to honour and celebrate his memor
but neat conſtruction. The numerous and low
are leſs able than inclined to contribute muc
of large and coſtly edifices for public worſhip
tention is much engaged beſides with their h
houſe has its altar and its deities. The book
contain repreſentations of thoſe who preſide
properties, as well as over exterior objects likel
of the Chineſe, however, carry the objects to be
votion beyond the benefits of this life. Yet th
ſeſſes the doctrine of the tranſmigration of ſoul
neſs to the people, on conditions, which were,
intended to conſiſt in the performance of moral
which, are too frequently ſubſtituted thoſe of
the erection or the repair of temples, the mainte
ſtrict attention to particular obſervances. The
nounced as puniſhable by the ſouls of the defa
bodies of the meaneſt animals, in which the ſuffe
tioned to the tranſgreſſion committed in the huma

Public roads.] The ſecurity of travellers,
conveyance for paſſengers and merchandiſe of e
to which particular attention ſeems to have be
tion in China. The manner in which the publ
greatly contributed to the former.

Theſe roads are paved in all the ſouthern provi
northern. Valleys have been filled up, and p
through rocks and mountains, in order to make
and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a l
rally bordered with very lofty trees, and ſometim
ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from e

penings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a paſſage to croſs roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great ads, covered ſeats are erected at proper diſtances, where the traveller ay ſhelter himſelf from the inclemency of the winter, or the exceſſive eats of the ſummer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the roſs roads. The former are very ſpacious, but they are badly ſupplied with proviſions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to leep on a plain mat. Government requires of thoſe who inhabit them, o give lodging only to thoſe who aſk and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (ſays Mr. Bell) called poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances one from another, with a flag-ſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendant. Theſe places are guarded by ſoldiers, who run from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By theſe means the court is informed in the ſpeedieſt manner of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote parts of the empire.

Revenues.] The public revenues of China Proper (ſays Staunton) are ſaid to be little leſs than two hundred millions of ounces of ſilver, which may be equal to about ſixty-ſix millions of pounds ſterling, or about four times thoſe of Great Britain, and three times thoſe of France, before the late ſubverſion. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenſes, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are firſt paid upon the ſpot, out of the treaſures of the reſpective provinces where ſuch expenſes are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treaſury at Peking. This ſurplus amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a ſtatement furniſhed by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the ſum of 36,614,328 ounces of ſilver, or 12,204,776l. A land tax was ſubſtituted in the laſt reign to the poll tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Moſt imports, and all luxuries, are likewiſe taxed; but the duty being added to the original price of the article, is ſeldom diſtinguiſhed from it by the conſumer. A tranſit duty is laid likewiſe on goods paſſing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to an European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of ſome particular article, the conveyance of which, to ſupply the demand for it in the others, raiſes this duty to a conſiderable ſum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Preſents from the tributaries and ſubjects of the emperor, and the confiſcations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treaſury. Taxes, ſuch as upon rice, are received in kind. The ſeveral ſpecies of grain, on which many of the poorer claſſes of the people principally ſubſiſt, are exempted from taxation: ſo is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chineſe.

Military and marine strength.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conqueſt by the Eaſtern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his govern-

ment, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a c
and condition, which was so much in their favo

According to the information given to the
lish embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himsel
ficer, and appeared to give his account with
always, perhaps, with sufficient care and acce
army in the pay of China, including Tartars,
lion infantry, and eight hundred thousand ca
servation made by the embassy, in the course o
the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of t
of the military posts at small distances from ea
ed nothing improbable in the calculation of t
met few cavalry. If the number mentioned
proportion of them must be in Tartary, or
from the route of the embassy. As to the ma
posed chiefly of the junks we have already ment
ships that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouri
vent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated fro
French language, was published at Paris, in 17
pears that the Chinese are well versed in the theo
but caution, and care, and circumspection, are
their generals; and one of their maxims is, neve
either more numerous or better armed than themse

History.] The Chinese pretend, as a nati
yond all measure of credibility, and their annals
yond the period to which the Scripture chronolog
the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have b
the interval of time betwixt him and the death of
fucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, h
276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accur
subject, it appears, that all the Chinese historical
to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057
entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, un
records, and full of contradictions. It appears alsc
Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than tw
before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire
antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for
extremely ample. The grand annals of the empir
hended in 668 volumes, and consist of the piece
posed by the tribunal or department of history, e
transmitting to posterity the public events of the
characters, and transactions, of its sovereigns. It i
which concern the monarchy, since its foundation,
this department; and from age to age have been arr
order of times, under the inspection of governmen
cautions against illusion or partiality that could
precautions have been carried so far, that the histo
imperial family has only been published after the
mily, and was kept a profound secret during the
fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is
the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exil
rather than disguise the defects and vices of the so
peror Chi-hoang-ti, at whose command the great

r 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and re-
ds which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the an-
nt government to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the
rned to oppoſe his authority, and the changes he propoſed to introduce
o the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books;
t this barbarous edict had not its full effect; ſeveral books were con-
aled, and eſcaped the general ruin. After this period, ſtrict ſearch was
ade for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, though
uch induſtry was employed for this purpoſe, it appears that the authen-
c hiſtorical ſources of the Chineſe, for the times anterior to the year 200
efore Chriſt, are very few, and that they are ſtill in ſmaller numbers for
more remote periods. But, notwithſtanding the depredations that have
een made upon the Chineſe hiſtory, it is ſtill immenſely voluminous,
nd has been judged by ſome writers ſuperior to that of all other nations.
f the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a
opy is preſerved in the library of the French nation. A chronological
bridgement of this great work, in 100 volumes, was publiſhed in the
2d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work
s generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgement. From theſe materials
he abbé Groſier propoſed to publiſh at Paris, in the French language, a
General hiſtory of China, in 12 volumes 4to. ſome of which have been
printed; and a ſmaller work in 12 volumes 8vo. by the late Father de
Mailla, miſſionary at Peking, has lately been publiſhed.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to en-
large upon ſo copious a ſubject as that of the Chineſe hiſtory; and which,
indeed, would be very unintereſting to the generality of European
readers. A ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic
tranquillity, united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi,
whoſe hiſtory is enveloped in myſteries; their Li-Laokum; and, above all,
their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all,
the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt
dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific; and they
were attended with the moſt bloody exterminations in ſome provinces:
ſo that, though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion
was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dy-
naſties, or different tribes and families of ſucceſſion, are enumerated
in their annals.

Neither the great Zingis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often
defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them
could keep the conqueſt they made there. Their celebrated wall proved
but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After
their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew
Tartars, while an indolent, worthleſs emperor, Tſong-tching, was upon
the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the
province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as
did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general,
on the frontier of Tartary, refuſe to recogniſe the uſurper, and made a
peace with Tſongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the
uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year
1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and, as has been
already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the
Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He
was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who
was the patron of the Jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he
found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About
the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch o
of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugue

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which o
Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they
vernment on the banks of the Wolga, and the
from the Caſpian Sea, and, in a vaſt body of fi
through the country of the Haſacks; after a m
which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties
in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carape
of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſ
peror of China, who was then in the thirty-ſix
received them graciouſly, furniſhed them wit
money, and allotted to each family a portio
and paſturage. The year following there wa
about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, w
ments which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian g
to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed t
tions to be engraven upon ſtone in four differe

The hopes which were lately indulged of th
vantages to be derived from the embaſſy of lo
of Peking have ended in diſappointment. N
a character better qualified for the management
lieacy and importance than lord Macartney:
lordſhip's adroitneſs, he found it utterly impo
for the reſidence of an Engliſhman at the cap
dor, conſul, or in any other character, or any e
Engliſh within the Chineſe dominions, even on
ſolely for the purpoſes of trade. According t
in Chineſe politics, innovation, of whatever kin
pregnant with ruin; and on this principle th
mit a foreign reſident at the court of Peking.
ples on which our commercial intercourſe wit
ſent regulated and confined.

The embaſſy arrived in the river Pei-ho, in t
beginning of Auguſt 1793, and on the 21ſt of
the city of Peking. They remained here till the
when they were conducted to Zhe-hol, or Jeh
country reſidences in Tartary, diſtant about ſi
Peking. Here they had their audience of th
the preſents they had brought in the moſt gracio
others of great value, of which two are ſo ſingu
notice. The one is a poem addreſſed to his Bri
poſition of the emperor himſelf, and his own ha
in a black, wooden, carved box, of no great val
which character it has a juſt claim, having been
the poſſeſſion of the imperial family of China.
maſs of coſtly agate, of unequalled ſize and beau
the practice with the emperor to hold this agate
his eyes upon it, whenever he ſpoke to a mandar
ters; as to look upon a ſubject is conſidered as
the imperial dignity, but to confer too much h
addreſſed.

Kien-Lung, the late emperor of China, appear
audience to the embaſſy, to be perfectly unreſerv
feſted; his eyes were full and clear, and his coun
eſs'd in plain dark ſilk, with a velvet bonnet, in f
from the bonnet of Scotch Highlanders; on the
large pearl, which was the only jewel or ornam
about him.

n-Lung, the late emperor of China, was only the fourth ſovereign Tartar dynaſty which took poſſeſſion of the throne of that country he year 1644. He aſcended the throne of China in 1736, and ebruary 11, 1799. He was ſucceeded by Ka-Hing, the preſent or, who, immediately on his acceſſion to the throne, degraded and oned Ho-choong-taung, the prime miniſter of his predeceſſor. This er was in power at the time of lord Macartney's embaſſy, and was ſed to be very hoſtile to the object of it: his diſgrace has given that ſuch another attempt might now prove ſucceſsful.

## INDIA IN GENERAL.

ITUATION AND BOUNDARIES. THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of eaſt longitude, and be- and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North by the ries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian ; on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe Sea; and, on the Weſt, Perſia and the Indian Sea.

DIVISIONS.] We ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large, three greater parts: firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the Main Land of Hindooſtan, the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within, or on this ſide the ges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is eſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ll be extracted from the moſt enlightened of our modern writers, who viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt-India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT. The Mahometans, or, as they are called, Moors, of Hindooſ- are computed, according to Mr. Orme, an excellent and authentic hiſ- , to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. ove half the empire is ſubject to rajahs or kings, who derive their deſcent m the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only ing a tribute to the Great Mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which r anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the govern- of Hindooſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs ery ſubject; but, as all precautions of that kind depend upon the ad- ication, the indolence and barbarity of the Moguls or emperors, and great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that ma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was in- only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our unt of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and man, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Brahmins, Gentoo prieſts, pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the am, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that, though the inal is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called Shaſtah, which is wrote in the Shanſcrit, now a dead language, and own only to the Brahmins.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Su- me Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſupe-

rior, and ſome inferior to man; and in the in
a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, wh
migration into different bodies, according to
their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears
the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe f
inculcating this ſublime but otherwiſe comp
lower ranks, induced the Brahmins, who a
mous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to
the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the orig
have degenerated into idolatry, in the w
mals, and various images of the moſt hide
carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial
great tribes. The firſt and moſt noble trib
alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the
They are not, however, excluded from gove
ture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from
laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe,
original inſtitution, ought to be all military
follow other profeſſions. The third is the trib
merchants, bankers, and banias, or ſhop-keep
that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervan
of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. I
be excommunicated from any of the four tribe
for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every perſ
that of the Harricaſt, who are held in utter d
tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſ
circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dread
ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf, rathe
article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoo
caſts and ſmall claſſes or tribes; and it has been
eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome ha
greater number. The order of pre-eminence o
cular city or province, is generally indiſputably
an inferior would think himſelf honoured by a
ſuperior caſt: but this latter would give battle
its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victu
caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not pa
been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt.
cumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt o
hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the
ſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to
ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and othe
uglineſs.

The members of each caſt, ſays Dr. Robert
the profeſſion of their forefathers. From gene
ſame families have followed, and will alway
uniform line of life. To this may be aſcribed
ſection conſpicuous in many of the Indian n
veneration for the practices of their anceſtors m
vention, yet, by adhering to theſe, they acqui
delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all th
ſcience, and the aid of more complete inſtrume

equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high movement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration attracted the commerce of other nations, the separation of professions India, and the early distribution of the people into classes attached to ticular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common d useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but mini- red to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India; the permanence of institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. hat now is in India, always was there, and is still likely to continue; ither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahomedan nquerors, nor the power of its European masters, has effected any siderable alterations. The same distinctions of condition take ce, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, e same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same iences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with dia has been the same; gold and silver have uniformly been carried ther in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now pplies all nations; and, from the age of Pliny to the present times, has always been considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards , and from which it never returns*.

All these casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from hem derive their belief of the transmigration; which leads many of hem to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned y inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, nd eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the ews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vege- ables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow lmost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of oods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar f their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a omestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is n indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate him- elf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also per- mits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; nd it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency f demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, hich might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in as- isting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies pre- scribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit heir own shores †; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They

* Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

† The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kist- a, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them from all pollu- ions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and in- ended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries: for it is remarkable, hat the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabi- ants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises n the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of engal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcunde, Agra, Delhi, nd Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus, bounding the Gusurat rovinces, separates Hindoostan from the dominions of Persia.

might, therefore, have lived in much tran
others had looked on them with the same in
regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called rajah-pu
from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the norther
rally more fair-complexioned than the people
who are quite black. These rajah-poots are
people, and enter into the service of those
when their leader falls in battle, they think
him are finished, and they run off the field w
reputation.

The custom of women burning themselve
husbands still continues to be practised, th
than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful
lands, and their public works and convenie
there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in
diamond merchants travel without defensive

RELIGION]. The institutions of religion
the extensive countries stretching from the b
Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly
gular and complete system of superstition, st
every thing which can excite the reverence a
the people. The temples consecrated to their
adorned not only with rich offerings, but wit
in painting and sculpture which the artists hi
them were capable of executing. The rites a
ship are pompous and splendid, and the per
mingles in all the transactions of common lif
tial part of them. The Brahmins, who, as m
in all its functions, are elevated above every
origin deemed not only more noble, but ackn
They have established among themselves a re
tion of ranks, which, by securing subordinati
weight to their authority, and gives them a
the minds of the people. This dominion the
of the immense revenues with which the lib
zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos ar
stone buildings, erected in every capital, and
Brahmins. To this, however, there are some
tion to the progress of the different countrie
refinement, the structure of their temples g
plain buildings they became highly ornamen
their extent and magnificence, are monument
the people by whom they were erected. In
there are pagodas of great antiquity in diffe
particularly in the southern provinces, which
structive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In o
forming a proper idea of these buildings, we
of which we have the most accurate accounts,
of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the
high veneration on account of its antiquity,
pyramid, a hundred and twenty-two feet in hei
above forty feet long, and more than five fee
plates of copper, adorned with an immense

uted. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in ther. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance rded to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillam-m, surpasses it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is situated about ile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by division of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is com-ed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, the walls of ich are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These inclosures are ee hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four ge gates with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of h side of the inclosures, and opposite to the four cardinal points.—e outward wall is nearly four miles in circumference, and its gateway the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single nes thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those ich form the roof are still larger: in the inmost inclosures are the apels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins e in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a vo-uousness which knows no wants *."

If the Brahmins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they equently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. r. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that dical astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken p with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in eir councils. The Mahomedans likewise encourage those superstitions, d look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to emselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive, under all their ppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their reli-ion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that refinement their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are suscep-ble of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and, rather than dis-ver it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, hich it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver ns, till of late, prevailed in Hindoostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less der the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other coun-ies. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little ourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and eir women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the auty of their women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they are all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not to wonder at eir being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; nd it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to alk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the est of all.

The Mahomedans, who, in Hindoostan, are called Moors, are of Per-ian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the eigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Hindoostan. They penetrated s far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies n several places, whose descendants are called Tytans; but their em-ire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul govern-

* Orme's Hist. of Milit. Transact. of Hindoostan, vol. i. p. 178.

ment, which still subsists. Those princes, b
received under their protection all that profess
who, being a brave active people, counterbal
natives. They are said to have introduced th
over which they appointed soubahs; and
which may be styled an empire, were subdivid
nabob being immediately accountable to his so
time, became almost independent on the emp
the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an a
resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise
medan government; but it is observable, that
tions, the progeny of all those adventurers, w
them but their horses and their swords, d
indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes, the Mahrattas at present
They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on
Hindoostan and Persia. They commonly serve
well commanded, they have been known to gi
of Delhi. Though they are originally Gento
active spirits, and pay no great respect to the p
Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mahomedans, or M
principle even of their own religion; and if t
an appearance of hospitality, but it is an app
they are drinking with, and embracing a frien
the heart. But it is probable that these repre
depravity are carried beyond the bounds of tru

The people of Hindoostan are governed by
there a lawyer in their whole empire; and thei
rected by precedents. The Mahomedan institu
great towns and their neighbourhood. The c
the emperor is heir only to his own officers.
ditary line, and continue in that state even d
while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latte
are immutably fixed in the public books of each
demesne lands are those of the great rajah famil
lane and his successors. Certain portions of
lands, and are bestowed by the crown on th
and, upon their death, revert to the emper
sub-tenants, even of those lands, are indefeasi

Such are the outlines of the government by
long subsisted, without almost the semblance o
officers, either civil or military. It was shak
vasion of Mahomed Shah, by Kouli Khan, w
great a diminution of the imperial authority,
bobs became absolute in their own governmen
not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet
which beggared the people, to pay their armies,
so that many of the people, a few years ago,
plundered by collectors and tax-masters, wer
want. To sum up the misery of the inhabit
nabobs, and other Mahomedan governors, em
selves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the
ciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ev
Kouli Khan, Hindoostan, from being a well-r
become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy

himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the ural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other rders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolu- ns of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes the English in Hindoostan.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the tures of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror merlane, and his great generals.

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## he PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ngth 2000<br>eadth 1000 | between | 1 and 30 North latitude.<br>92 and 109 East longitude. | 741,500 |

UNDARIES.] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China on the North; by China and the Chinese Sea on the st: by the same sea and the Straits of Malacca on the South; and by e Bay of Bengal and the Hither India on the West. The space be- een Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and her districts subject to the king of Ava, or Birmah.

| divis. | Subdivis. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| the orth- est, | Acham<br>Ava<br>Aracan | Chamdara<br>Ava<br>Aracan | 180,000 |
| the outh- est, | Pegu<br>Martaban<br>Siam<br>Malacca | Pegu, E. long. 97. N. lat. 17-30.<br>Martaban<br>Siam, E. long. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18.<br>Malacca, E. long. 101. N. lat. 2-12. | 50,000<br><br>170,000<br>48,900 |
| the orth- st, | Tonquin<br>Laos | Cachao, or Keccio, E. long. 105. N. lat. 21-30.<br>Lanchang | 112,000<br>59,400 |
| the outh- st, | C. China<br>Cambod.<br>Chiampa | Thoanoa<br>Cambodia<br>Padram | 61,900<br>60,200 |

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which, all others, was the best known to the Persians. The whole of this insula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the mo- rns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The air of the southern parts of this country ot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. e climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so

that the people build their houses upon l
from floods; and they have no other idea of
Easterly and westerly *monsoons*, or trade wi

MOUNTAINS.] These run from north
length of the country; but the lands near t
overflowed in the rainy season.

RIVERS.] The chief are the Sampoo or
con, Menan, and Ava, or the great river

Of these, the Burrampooter, called Samp
course, is by far the most considerable. Th
issues from the same mountains that give bi
a contrary, i. e. an easterly direction, thr
south-west through Assam; and, enterin
south, assumes the name of Megna, and joi
Ganges with an immense body of water, e
Ganges itself.

These two noble rivers, when they appro
a multitude of channels, and receive such a
that a tract of country, nearly equal to Gr
by their means the finest inland navigation
which gives constant employment to 30,
nels are so numerous, that very few places
dry season, 25 miles from a navigable stre
periodical rains, they overflow their banks
form an inundation that fertilizes the soil t
miles*.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Beng
The straits of Malacca and Sincapora. Th
mana, and Bansac.

SOIL, AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The s
ful in ge
delightful fruits that are found in other
Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables; als
timber, or Indian oak, which for ship-buil
perior to any European oak. It abounds li
quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that
kingdoms of Asia. The natives carry on a g
rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other pre
duces little or no corn or wine, but is the
the peninsula. In some places, especially
bitants have swellings in their throats, sai
of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonq
nies, and fa
pressed by their king and great lords. T
and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch an
quinese are fond of lacker houses, which a
ous. The people in the south are a savage
with large silver and gold ear-rings, and co
In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexe
by their dress, which resembles that of t
quality are fond of English broad-cloth, re
a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem,

* Major Rennell's Memoir

countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dog's flesh to all other
nal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king
ole proprietor of all the gold and silver and other metals found in his
gdom. They live, however, easily and comfortably. Almost every
sekeeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and
men,—polygamy being practised all over India.
It is unquestionable, that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had
use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the inven-
n is generally ascribed to the Azimese. The inhabitants of the
thern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans,
m the neighbouring country of Malacca.
Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are
remely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when
ir kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and
h vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in
ir future life. The people of this peninsula are commonly very fond
show, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances.
ey are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they
dle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loath-
e; for, besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking
. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for
y hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with
ir virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy.
eir treatment of the sick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many
es, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the
k of some river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds
beasts of prey.
The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the
ebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from even-
g to morning.
LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian; but in
s peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already observed, in-
ersed with other dialects.
LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe
the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to
with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior,
her as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their an-
tors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed
the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the
owledge which exists in Hindoostan. But the utmost stretch of their
thematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They
e a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any
atises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their
dice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from
knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their
igion.
The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the
tion of their historians very diffuse and verbose; but, though the man-
of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there
many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention
literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Shanscrit, or learned
guage of the Brahmins, which is the grand repository of the religion,
losophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many
dred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their
tory. The same writer also remarks, that the Shanscrit records con-

tain accounts of the affairs of the Western As
what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitte
it is more than probable, that, upon examinati
pear to bear the marks of more authenticity, a
than the latter. The Arabian writers have beer
judiced against the Hindoos, that their accou
means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress
elegance of sentiment and diction have made in
ceed from a want of encouragement to literatur
appears, that no princes in the world patroniz
more generosity and respect than the Mahom
doostan. A literary genius was not only the
a degree of wealth, which must astonish Euro
road for rising to the first offices of the state.
learned was at the same time so sacred, that ty
time of imbruing their hands in the blood of t
only abstained from offering violence to men
fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These
countries of this peninsula; but the chief bra
mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are
their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades t
people are more industrious, and better work
Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroi
manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as
feet as their hands. Their painting, though the
ing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fin
their fillagree work in gold and silver, are bey
kinds to be found in other parts of the world.
in short, is courted by all trading nations in the
been so from the earliest ages: it was not unk
time; and the Greeks and Romans drew fro
materials of luxury. The greatest share of it,
to this part of our work, is now centred in
of the Dutch is still considerable; that of th
time declined; nor is that of the Swedes and D
ance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES. } This art
it requires
kingdoms that form this peninsula. In Azem,
served, the king is proprietor of all the gold and
nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is
We know very little of the kingdom of Tipra, b
subject to the kings of Aracan; and that they s
and silk, for which they receive silver in retur

Aracan lies to the south of Tipra, and was
twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who
His palace was very large; and contained, as w
cast in gold, of two inches thick, each of a mar
with diamonds and other precious stones. At p
part of the empire of Ava, having been conque
present sovereign of that country, in 1783. Pe
miles in length, and almost the same in breadth.
a river of the same name, was, about the year

most splendid, and populous cities in all Asia. The emperor of this try was anciently a very rich and powerful monarch; but about the ning of the seventeenth century, Pegu was conquered by the king va or Birmah, and the kingdoms united; till about the year 1740, n the Peguers rebelled, and in a few years subdued, in their turn, kingdom of Ava. In 1754, however, the Birmans, under Alom-, who became their sovereign, shook off the yoke, and again sub-d Pegu, which now forms a part of the Birman empire.

Ava, Birmah, or, as it is called by the natives, Miama, is bounded on e west by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from Aracan; on e north-east and east by China and Siam; and on the south by Pegu. he Birman empire consists of Ava, Pegu, and Aracan, which are now subject to one sovereign. It is difficult to ascertain the exact limits this empire; but according to major Symes, in his account of an em-sy to Ava, in the year 1795, it appears to include the space between 9th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and between the 92d and 9th degrees of longitude east of Greenwich; being about 1050 geo-raphical miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The number of cities, wns, and villages, in the Birman dominions, major Symes was assured a person who might be supposed to know, amounts to 8000; from hich the population of the whole empire, including Aracan, may be pposed to be not less than seventeen millions.

The climate of Ava is extremely salubrious; the seasons are regular, nd the extremes of heat and cold seldom experienced; at least the du-ation of the intense heat, which immediately precedes the commence-ment of the rainy season, is very short. The soil is remarkably fertile, nd produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest arts of Bengal. Sugar-canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this fertile country. The kingdom of Ava abounds in mi-erals: it contains mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires; it also affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, nd marble. An extensive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton. Amber, ivory, precious stones, betel-nut, nd the edible nests brought from the eastern archipelago, are also ar-ticles of commerce.

The general disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of Hindoostan, from whom they are separated only by a narrow ridge of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the phy-sical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Bir-mans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours it is well known is the reverse.—The unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the East to immure their women within the walls of a haram, and sur-round them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. The wives and daughters of the Birmans are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other as the rules of European society admit. The Birmans are extremely fond both of poetry and music. Their religion is, in fact, that of the Hindoos, though they are not votaries of Brama, but sectaries of Boodh.

The emperor of Ava, like the other sovereigns of the East, is a

and has a fine arsenal. The English have a
the north side of the city.

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## INDIA within the GANGES, or H
## Empire of the GREAT M

SITUATION and EXTENT, including the Penin

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 2000 | between | 7 and 40 No |
| Breadth 1500 | | 66 and 92 Eas |

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by
bet on the North; by Thib
on the East; by the Indian Ocean on the Sout
sia, on the West. The main land being the
stan properly so called.

| Grand Divisions. | Provinces. | |
|---|---|---|
| The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouth of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut | Bengal proper | |
| | Naugracut | |
| | Jesuar | |
| | Patna | |
| | Necbal | |
| | Gore | |
| | Rotas | |
| The north-west division, on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus | Soret | |
| | Jesselmere | |
| | Tata, or Sinda | |
| | Bucknor | |
| | Moultan | |
| | Haican | |
| | Cabul | |
| The middle division | Candish | |
| | Berar | |
| | Chitor | |
| | Ratipor | |
| | Navar | |
| | Gualeor | |
| | Agra | |
| | Delhi | |
| | Lahor, or Pencah | |
| | Hendowns | |
| | Cassimere | |
| | Jengapour | |
| | Asmer, or Bando | |

he British nation possess, in full sovereignty, the whole soubah of gal, and the greatest part of Bahar; in Orissa, or Orixa, only the rict of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions in this of Hindoostan contain about 15,000 square British miles of land; which if we add the district of Benares, the whole will be 162,000, t is, 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; l near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, includ- Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned ual to 3,050,000l.* With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy whole navigable course of the Ganges from its entry on the plains the sea, which, by its winding course, is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; d in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, d consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Hindoostan, e commonly seized with some illness, such as flux, or fever, in their fferent appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the tients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Cauca- s and Naugracut, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other eople more warlike than the Gentoos. The mountains of Balegaut, which run almost the whole length of India from north to south, are so igh as to stop the western monsoon, the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar than they do on the Coromandel coast.

RIVERS.] These are the Indus, called by the natives Sinda and Sin- ch; and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in he highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] These are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulf of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin, and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what has been said of their religions and sects, in the general review of this great empire, it may be added, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahomedan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practising the greatest austerities; but many of them are im- postors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendi- cants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but most of them are vagabonds and impostors, who live by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and pro- fess the Gentoo religion.

The Persees, or Parses of Hindoostan are originally the Gaurs, de- scribed in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as

* A considerable addition both to the territory and revenue of the East-India Com- pany was obtained by the cessions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 square miles, affording a revenue of 1,316,765 Coonteary pagodas, equal to 411,450l. RENNELL.

Another considerable addition has since been made by the late conquest and partition of the whole of the Mysore country.

well as the gun, and often train the leopards to
They affect shady walks and cool fountains, li
countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountel
barbarous music, both in wind and string instrun
in their private parties. Their houses make no
of the commonalty are poor and mean, and gen
renders them subject to fire; but the manufactu
the open air; and the insides of houses belongi
are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant
magnificent.

COMMERCE OF HINDOOSTAN.] The commer
India have already been mentioned; but the
here carry on a trade that has not been describ
Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of th
Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular s
junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides
1700 Mahomedan pilgrims to visit the tomb of t
ca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and
they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver;
junk returning from this voyage is often worth

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. The
the la
containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Ag
and its castle the largest fortification in all th
have a factory there, but the English have not.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of tha
the capital of Hindoostan. It is described as bei
taining the imperial palace, which is adorned with
of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,00
Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephant
burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often th
said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter,
evening with rice milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and
which happened there in 1699, carried off abov
facturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous
palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couch
men all over India, Europeans as well as natives,
pear abroad. They are carried by four men,
morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten be
carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Tho
at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for
month each, out of which they maintain themse
Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its

Though the province of Moultan is not very
cellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, b
enabled to deal with the Persians yearly for abov

The province of Cassimere being surrounded
ficult of access; but, when entered, it appears t
Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages,
and game, without any beasts of prey. The cap
by a large lake; and both sexes, the women espec
as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexter

The province and city of Lahor formerly mad
Indian history, and is still one of the largest and
Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Hindo

bout nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know lit-
the province of Ayud, Varad, Beker, Hallabas, that is not in
on with the other provinces of Hindoostan, excepting that they
habited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been
uered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy,
pendent state. In some of those provinces many of the European
s, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native soil.

engal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to
nglish reader. It is esteemed the storehouse of the East-Indies.
ertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile:
the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum,
ll mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka,
m, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and provisions here are
ast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and
e. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for
benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both sides the
nges, full of cities, towns, castles, and villages.

n Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest pu-
, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their
gnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithstanding their
gion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called
rt William: it is situated on the river Hoogley, the most westerly
nch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the sea: and the river
avigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. The
itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops;
the servants of the company have provided themselves with an ex-
lent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommo-
tion. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession
the company, an English civil government, by a mayor and alder-
n, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority
the company. But in 1773 an act of parliament was passed to regu-
e the affairs of the East-India company, as well in India as in Eu-
pe. By this act, a governor-general and four counsellors were ap-
inted, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the
ole civil and military government of the presidency of Fort William:
d the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial
quisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa,
long as the company should remain possessed of them. The governor-
neral and council so appointed are invested with the power of super-
tending and controlling the government and management of the
esidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general
d council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and
correspond with them. The governor-general and counsellors are
kewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William:
consist of a chief justice and three other judges, to be named from
me to time by his majesty; they are to exercise all criminal, admiralty,
d ecclesiastical jurisdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of
er and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory at Fort Wil-
m and its limits; and the factories subordinate thereto. But the
tablishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted
ther the interests of the East-India company, or the felicity of the peo-
e of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners
d customs of the natives: acts of great oppression and injustice have
en committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dis-

satisfaction, disorder, and confusion. Fo
of the East India territories and company, v
History of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place a
markable to be omitted. The Indian nabob
the company, and invested Calcutta with a
The governor and some of the principal
themselves, with the chief effects, on boa
they who remained, for some hours brave
their ammunition being expended, they sur
soubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, inst
lation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's ch
subjects, into a little but secure prison, call
about eighteen feet square, and shut up fro
of free air. Their miseries during the night
fore morning no more than twenty-three we
ing of suffocation, which was generally atter
Among those saved was Mr. Holwel himsel
affecting account of the catastrophe. The
his capital, after plundering the place, im
English out of his dominions; but the se
Watson, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive
some difficulty, in possession of Calcutta; a
the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel,
Surajah Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jaffei
had previously signed a secret treaty with Cl
amply reward the English, was advanced of

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob
or Moorshedabad; and Benares, lying in
Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sa

Chandenagore is the principal place posses
it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. B
furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans
fended by 123 pieces of cannon and three m
English admirals Watson and Pococke, a
was taken the last war, but restored by the
fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon th
digious trade for the richest of all Indian
have here a well fortified factory. The sea
on by about 10,000 people, from Saumelpou
to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty mile
be the largest city in Bengal, and the tide co
tains an English and a Dutch factory. The
sumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo
places of less note, but all of them rich in t

We know little concerning the province
lies to the west of Bengal, but that it is as fe
and that its chief cities are Ratipor, Ougein,
of Candish includes that of Berar and part o
Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flourishing cit
trade in chintzes, calicoes, and embroidered
tal of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to
north of what is properly called the peninsula
that lie to the southward fall into the descrip

HISTORY.] The first invader of this country, India, whose expedi-
on is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon.
ngis Khan also directed his force thither in the year 1221, and made
e emperor forsake his capital; he is said to have given the name of
logul to India. Long before Tamerlane, descended in the female line
om that conqueror, Mahomedan princes had entered, made conquests,
nd established themselves in India. Walid, the sixth of the caliphs,
amed Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the
hristian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India;
that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mah-
moud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province
eparated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated
ear Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Hindoostan, in
he year 1000 or 1002 of the Christian æra. He treated the Indians
ith all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plunder-
ng treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolators throughout
is route. The wealth found by him in Hindoostan is represented to be
mmense. The successors of this Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the
Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries
which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when
Kosron Shah, the 13th and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was de-
osed by Kussain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides,
which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions
s their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the
Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor, Gai-
atheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew
from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been ren-
dered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods
and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and exe-
cuted it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person
of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut
off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time
of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descend-
ing more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of
the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian
met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims
of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an
immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself
lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the
Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over
Hindoostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been vari-
ously represented; but all writers agree, that they were magnificent
and despotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been
already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which
their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous
Aurungzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of
the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren,
mounted the throne of Hindoostan, and may be considered as the real
founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and a politic
prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little
better than nominal, over the peninsula within the Ganges, which is at
present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year
1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive
in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed th
bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldi
Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to hi
verned by his mistress so absolutely, that hi
against him, and raised to the throne one of
off his uncle's head. The new emperor, who
was governed and at last enslaved by two bro
who abused his power so grossly, that, being a
licly, he ordered them both to be privately assas
his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in w
grandson of Aurungzebe, by his daughter, a yo
age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukh
proved disagreeable to the brothers; and, being
to the throne his elder brother, who took the
rajahs of Hindoostan, whose ancestors had ent
what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they a
ly, took the field against the two brothers; but t
and Shaw Jehan was put in tranquil possession
1719. He was succeeded by another prince
took the name of Mahommed Shah, and enter
with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds,
mies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurungzebe's
zam, it is said, was privately encouraged by
himself against the brothers, and to proclaim h
which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was
ror's order, and who immediately advanced t
other brother; but he no sooner understood w
he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of
peror. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the

He is said to have used his conquest with g
remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence h
Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemn
ment, but the emperor took possession of his va
long survive his confinement; and, upon his d
doned himself to the same course of pleasures th
his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became no
neral, and was often employed against the Mahr
when they had almost made themselves maste
He was confirmed in his soubaship, and was co
fect in the empire. Authors, however, are divi
inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan,
invade Hindoostan. It is thought, that he had
party formed against him at court; but the tru
zam did not think that Nadir Shah could have s
ed to make himself useful by opposing him. Th
is well known, and the immense treasure whic
doostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he ob
render to him all the lands to the west of the
comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Ca
many other rich and populous principalities, th
equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoos 200,000 liv
made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those
eated, make it amount to the incredible sum of

e millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those nes. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to nsiderably above seventy millions. Be that as it may, the invasion of adir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of e Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. Nadir, however, when e had raised all the money he could in Delhi, re-instated the Mogul, lahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own coun-y. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being illing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce . The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his reasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found neans, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to arry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was nabled to put himself at the head of an army, and march against Delhi ith fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi ade the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first ccasioned. Prince Achmet Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the visier, ith other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty housand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with arious success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His on, Achmet Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the mpire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an indepen-ent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, possessing the south-western penin-ula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claims to jaghires * and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic misery. Achmet Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindoostan, and the people suf-fered great calamities. At present the imperial dignity of Hindoostan is vested in Shah Allum Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining of the house and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee of their possessions.

We shall now conclude the history of Hindoostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the possession of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for, in 1767, they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753 had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokeable indeed at pleasure; but generally held for life.

authority, under the title of regent. In a short
dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until
equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, wi
than four millions sterling annually. The discor
various parts of Hindoostan, particularly among t
him to aggrandise himself in such a manner, that
formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767 he fe
of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, a
British. The former were bought off with a su
latter were in consequence obliged to retire. H
assembled all their forces, several obstinate engag
the British now, for the first time, found a stea
Indian prince. The war continued with various s
1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, wit
of his army, passing by that of the British, advan
stance of Madras, where he intimidated the go
upon his own terms. The advantages gained by
were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with
whom, in the year 1771, he received a most drea
whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was
cessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the co
of their own accord; after which he retrieved hi
perseverance and diligence, so that in a few year
midable than ever. In 1772 the Mahrattas mad
possession of the provinces of Corah, and some oth
by the British, who, next year, defeated and drov
Ganges, when they had invaded the country of
occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of S
the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks
tection afforded them; but when the money can
under various pretences, refused; the consequence
Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded a
British, as well as several other large tracts of terr
the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the west
five miles of Agra; north-westward, to the upper
course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the

In 1778 a new war commenced with the Mah
casion a brigade, consisting of 7000 Indian troop
tish officers, traversed the whole empire of the Ma
Jumna to the Western Ocean. About this time
broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expectin
French, made a dreadful irruption into the Car
100,000 men. For some time he carried every t
having the good fortune to defeat, or rather dest
the British army, under colonel Baillie, it was g
the power of Britain in that part of the world wo
nihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coo
the management of affairs was now committed, th
midable adversary was stopped, and he soon bec
which was attended with incredible expence to
reasonable prospect of success. By the year 17
Ally was sincerely desirous of peace, but died bef
to a conclusion; and his rival, Sir Eyre Coote,
above five months: a very remarkable circums

rders in chief of two armies, opposed to each other, should both die tural deaths within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Ally succeeded his son, Tippoo Sultan, whose military owess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo as the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was sup-sed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy hich, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded uch reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the d government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the an-oyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was appily defeated by the French revolution.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch han to the English; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing ettlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring onarch, made them tremble for its safety. That sagacious people, how-ver, have seldom been without their resources. Besides Cochin, the Dutch were possessed of two other forts, which were situated between Mysore and their favourite settlement; and one of them, Cranganore, ad been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke ut in 1780 between Hyder and the English, he was obliged to evacuate is garrisons on the Malabar coast, to employ his force in the Carnatic; nd Holland and France being soon after united with Hyder against the nglish, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandestinely taking ossession, and re-garrisoning the fort; a measure which greatly offend-d Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, owever, of France, a compromise took place, but upon what terms is ncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and heir situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to My-ore (the rajah of Cochin), the possession of them was a most desirable bject with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a for-midable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the transactions we have just related. Unable therefore to retain the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of much superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travan-core for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to assist him), against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeated-ly cautioned both by Sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his successor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this ac-quisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some ad-jacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the rajah informed the Madras go-vernment, through their resident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchase.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent spec-

tator of these transactions. He insisted on the clai
over these forts, in consequence of their being conq
and in consequence of the subsequent compromise.
according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them co
out his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and on th
he made, with a considerable force, a direct attack u
vancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the B
Fort St. George, he desisted, and even apologised.
December to the 1st of March, Tippoo Sultan rema
still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of
confidently affirmed, offering to submit the dispute
bitration.

On the 1st of March, 1790, the rajah's troops m
tack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet withi
29th of December. An engagement took place;
vernment conceived themselves bound to take an a
riod appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, i
of the British administration. With all the other
were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance ex
Britain and the two most powerful states of India,
Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfe
their utmost force to crush the rising power of My

We shall here present the reader with a brief acc
and termination of this war, by which the British p
ever established on the continent of Asia, from a na
major Dirom, from journals and authentic documen

It should be remembered, that the campaign he
third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The *first*
1790, and concluded with that year. It was confine
The *second campaign* contained the capture of Banga
seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded
lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end
*third* commences almost from that point, and termina
Observing, however, as the author very properly sta
climate of Mysore, campaigns are regulated rather
tions than by seasons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable cir
treat of the two armies under general Abercromby a
the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic distemper
and a dreadful scarcity of grain. These evils, ho
degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a s
and arrangements were made for obtaining in future
regular provisions of bullocks and grain, and for rep
guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of
rations began, which were to secure the communic
natic, and reduce the power of the enemy in those
force was immediately and successfully employed
Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the
next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangal
ed the communication with the Nizam's army, and
by that route. These being soon reduced, Nundy
summit of a mountain, about one thousand seven hu
a place of greater magnitude and strength, was attac
besieged from September 22, was carried by assa

tober, in spite of obstacles which might reasonably have been deemed
rmountable.

By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds
w came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of Oc-
ber; and Kistdagheri attacked on the 7th of November; this was
most the only enterprise that was not completely successful: the lower
rt and pettah were taken; but the upper fort maintained its defence,
d the attack was relinquished. It seems that it could only have been
rried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the
me month, another instance of ill success happened to us; the relief
f Coimbetore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to ca-
itulate to Kummeer-ud-deen Kahn, on terms which Tippoo did not
terwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witness, in the month of De-
mber, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This for-
ess, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus
scribed: It is "a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise
bove half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten
iles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defend-
d by cross walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed accessible—this
uge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above by a
hasm which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each
heir defences, form two citadels capable of being maintained, inde-
endent of the lower works; and, affording a secure retreat, should
ncourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity," p. 67. It is
o less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding
ills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it de-
ives its formidable name.

The sultan is said to have flattered himself that before this place
" half the Europeans would die of sickness, the other half be killed in
he attack;" he was, however, mistaken. The garrison, fortunately
or us, trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exer-
ions, and, on the 21st of December, only the 11th day of the siege,
his fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in less
han an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private
oldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell successively after this brilliant suc-
ess. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the
ame interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurram-
ondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded.
To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purseram
Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Si-
noga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole
llied forces, excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity
of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations against Seringapatam. On the first of
February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on
he 5th we encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from
he position of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be ex-
pected by the sultan that he should receive so early an attack as lord
Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated, and forti-
fied by a bound hedge, and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after caus-
ing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the com-
mander in chief issued orders for the attack that very evening.
army was to march at night in three divisions, and without ca

" The plan of attack," says major Dirom, " wa
the expectation of our army ; but, like a discove
excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to
with general applause." The outlines of this grea
rally known ; the particulars cannot be detailed i
related with great clearness by the historian, and
attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo
camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken,
blished on the island, in a strong position, where
posted. All possible preparations were made, from
the capital by assault : and they were such as prob
crowned with full success. On the 16th of F
army, under general Abercromby, after overcomi
joined the main army, and remained posted to
city.

On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of
ation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasin
attacking the advanced post of this army on the ni
poo made no farther effort ; and on the 24th, whe
the general assault were in great forwardness, it wa
liminaries of peace were settled. The conference
begun on the 15th ; but the operations on both si
24th. After the cessation of arms, which then to
of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious,
sary on our part to renew the preparations for th
at length, by the firmness and decision of lord C
bly alarmed by the discontent of his own people
submitted to all the terms proposed ; and on th
copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in
lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied pri
son, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta ple
Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be prese
person, and were represented by their vakeels.

The substance of the treaty was : 1st. That Ti
half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d.
three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That
be restored. 4th. That two of the sultan's thre
become hostages for the performance of the treaty

Tippoo is said to have been prevailed upon wit
subscribe to the terms of peace ; and now that all
easiness in the seraglio became extreme, in partin
were to be sent out as hostages. The sultan was
quest they might be allowed to stay another da
suitable preparations for their departure ; and lord
dispensed with their coming at the time the treaty
the goodness to grant his request.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared
went out, and every where crowded with people,
or affection, had come to see them depart, the sult
rampart above the gateway. They were saluted b
it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as
camp, where the part of the line they passed wa
them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents,
from the fort for their accommodation, where they

Cannaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head-quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver howder [a canopied seat], and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harcarras [messengers] and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags, suspended from rockets *, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoys and a party of horse brought up the rear. In this order they approached head-quarters, where the battalion of Bengal sepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalik, was about ten, the youngest, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: "These children were this morning the sons of the sultan, my master; their situation is now changed, and they must look up to your lordship as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shewn to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators, were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament, consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct.

Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly stated thus:—1. Our most formidable enemy was so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure. 2. Madras was secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts. 3. The value of Bombay was greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligauteherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, far overbalanced the expences of the war. By a statement of major Dirom, it appears that Tippoo lost in this war sixty-seven forts, 801 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It is utterly impossible, says major Rennell, in the present imperfect state of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninsula (notwithstanding the present improvements), to describe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the cessions now made to the Mahrattas and Nizam; or even the positions of all the principal places

* *Rocket* is a missile weapon, consisting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.

situated within them. A very good *general* collected from the map, on which the countri marked.

The ambition of Tippoo Sultan was for a ti ries which had forced him to sign the treaty power diminished by the cessions he had been however, he retained the same enmity to the the desire of revenge, should any events affor an opportunity again to resume his arms. T between England and France, in consequence seemed to present such an opportunity, and Ti the suggestions of French emissaries, that, by with that republic, he might receive from it should not only enable him to regain the terri tirely to drive the English out of Asia, and had these acquired with the French.

In the month of February, 1798, a procla governor-general of the Isle of France, impor arrived at the Isle of France with letters from not only to the governor of that island, but to of France, proposing to conclude an offensive a the French; to subsidise and to supply wha might furnish to the sultan; and to commence in India a war of aggression, for which the s be fully prepared. The proclamation conclud ment to the subjects of France to enter into t tan, on terms to be fixed with his embassador circumstances attending this proclamation, o fact that Tippoo had actually concluded such an in it with the French; and it also appeared t embassy to Zemaun Shah, the sultan of the Af could be no other than to encourage that pri his long-intended invasion of Hindoostan. T Egypt, likewise, in the summer of the same y its ultimate object the execution of a plan settlements in India, in conjunction with Tip

In consequence of these transactions, which hostility, lord Mornington, the present governo dressed a letter to Tippoo Sultan, in which h and concern at the intercourse he maintained, formed with the French, proposing to send to might more fully and particularly explain the effectual for removing all distrust and suspicio and good understanding on the most durable f at the same time, expecting but little satisfac he had thus offered to open, determined to ass armies on the coast of Coromandel and Mala attention to strengthen and improve the defe with the Nizam and the Paishwa of the Mahr tory orders to the government of Fort St. Geo ment of their battering train, and to advance i patch to the most eligible station on the frontie view of proceeding towards Seringapatam at th if such a movement into Mysore should becom

The letter of his lordship to Tippoo produced no other answer than ague professions of a wish to maintain peace and amity. The sultan, however, declined receiving major Doveton; alledging that no means more effectual could be devised than the treaties and engagements already entered into, to give stability to the foundations of friendship and harmony, or promote the states and the welfare and advantage of all parties.

As it was evident that Tippoo meant only to gain time and increase his strength, lord Mornington determined to avail himself of the superiority of his force, and commence hostilities immediately. He accordingly, on the 3d of February, 1799, directed lieutenant-general Harris to enter the territory of the Mysore with the army assembled under his command; and on the same day issued orders to lieutenant-general Stuart to be prepared to co-operate from Malabar; and signified to rear-admiral Rainier, and to the several allies of the company, that he now considered the British government in India to be at war with Tippoo Sultan.

The army of Bombay, under the command of lieutenant-general Stuart, marched from Cananore on the 21st of February, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum ghaut on the 25th of the same month, and took post at Seedapoor and Seedasere on the 2d of March. The army of Madras, under lieutenant-general Harris, entered the territory of Mysore on the 5th of March, and commenced its operations by the reduction of several forts upon the frontier. On the 6th of March Tippoo Sultan passed his own frontier, and attacked a detachment of the army of Bombay, under lieutenant-general Stuart,—the total strength of whose entire army did not amount to six thousand fighting men. The attack of the sultan's force was sustained by a body not exceeding two thousand men, and the sultan's army was finally defeated and completely dispersed, before general Stuart could collect the whole of his divided force.

After this signal defeat, Tippoo retreated precipitately to his camp at Periapatam, and remained there until the 11th of March without making any farther attempt to molest the army. He then returned to Seringapatam, whence in a few days he moved to meet lieutenant-general Harris and the army of Madras, between which and the army of Tippoo an engagement took place on the 27th of March, in which the sultan was completely defeated, and driven from every post which he attempted to maintain. General Harris then proceeded on his march without the least interruption, till, on the 30th, he crossed the Caveri, with his whole army, and on the 5th of April encamped two miles south-west of Seringapatam, the siege of which he immediately prepared to commence.

In the afternoon of the 14th of April, the army of Bombay joined the army before Seringapatam. A large body of the cavalry of the enemy, under the command of Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, had attended them closely during their march from Periapatam, but without having been able to make the slightest impression upon them. On the night of the 20th general Harris received a letter from Tippoo Sultan, expressive of a desire to open a negotiation for peace. To this overture the general answered by transmitting a draft of preliminaries, founded on instructions with which he had been furnished by the governor-general; and which were, in substance, that Tippoo should deliver all Frenchmen, or natives of the island of Mauritius, or Bourbon, or of any other countries not subject to France, as also all Europeans, natives or subjects of countries at war with Great Britain, to be treated as prisoners of war; that

should renounce all connexion with the French
cede one half of the dominions of which he w
the war, to the allies: that he should pay two
two millions sterling); and that he should send
sons, and four of his principal officers, together
treasure, within forty-eight hours, to the camp
propositions the sultan replied, that they were
be brought to a conclusion without the interven
General Harris, considering this as evidently
refused to admit any vakeels or embassadors,
the hostages and specie required.

On the 30th of April the batteries began to l
the evening of the 3d of May had so much destr
arrangement was made for assaulting the place
when the breach was reported practicable. The
employed were stationed in the trenches early in
that no extraordinary movement might lead the
assault, which it was determined to make in the
time best calculated to ensure success, since
would then be least prepared to oppose the atta
disposition, at one o'clock the troops began to
crossed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and mount
spite of every obstacle which the difficulty of th
sistance of the enemy could oppose. Their impe
pletely successful. Resistance, however, contin
palace of Tippoo for some time after all firing
works. Two of his sons were there, who, on a
rendered to the troops surrounding them; and
the protection of the family, most of whom were
soon after reported, that Tippoo Sultan had fall
Saduc, Syed Gofar, and many other of his chiefs
sures were immediately adopted to stop the conf
able in a city strongly garrisoned, crowded with
property in ruins from the fire of a numerous ar
assault. The princes were removed to the camp

As it appeared important to ascertain the fat
diate search was made for his body, which, afte
found, late in the evening, in one of the gates,
He had been shot through the head, and bayone
his body, as he attempted to make his escape.
next day recognized by the family, and interred
to his rank, in the mausoleum of his father.

The treasure found in the place was immense;
of grain, and military stores of all kinds, were l

Thus ended the power and life of, perhaps, th
formidable enemy the British government ever h
death has given a security to their possessions i
they never could have had during his life. Hi
divided between the British, the Nizam, and th
rattas, except certain districts of Mysore, which
Maha Rajah, a descendant of the ancient rajahs o
pay an annual subsidy to the British government
godas (or 70,000l. sterling) for the defence of hi
are to possess the fortress, city, and island of Ser

Tippoo Sultan was, when he fell, about fifty years of age. He was about five feet nine inches high; his face was round, with large full eyes, and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his disposition he was naturally cruel, passionate, and revengeful. It is probable that his abilities have been over-rated, and that he was neither so wise a statesman, nor so able a general, as he has been represented. Though he possessed a considerable share of prudence, and was not, in general, wanting either in promptitude or judgment, he at last fell a victim to ill-concerted schemes, dictated by his ambition and thirst of revenge.

As to the government and constitution of Hindoostan, we must refer to what we have already observed. The emperor of Hindoostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne,*" *&c.* but he is never crowned.

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## THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES;

OR,

## PENINSULA OF HINDOOSTAN.

| Grand Divisions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. | Sq. M. |
|---|---|---|---|
| The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel. | Madura | Madura | 16,400 |
| | Tanjore | Tanjore | 83,550 |
| | | Tranquebar, Danes | |
| | East side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic. | Negapatam, English | |
| | | Bisnagar | |
| | | Porta-nova, Dutch | |
| | | Fort St. David, English | |
| | | Pondicherry, French. | |
| | | Conymere, French. | |
| | | Coblon | |
| | | Sedraspatam, Dutch | |
| | | St. Thomas, Portguese | |
| | | Fort St. George or Madras, E. long. 80-25 N. lat. 13-5. English | |
| | | Pellicate, Dutch | |
| | Golconda | Golconda | 62,100 |
| | | Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines | |
| | | Masulipatam, English and Dutch | |
| | | Vizigapatam, English | |
| | | Bimlipatam, Dutch | |
| | Orissa | Cattack | |
| | | Balasore, English | |

| Grand Divisions. | Provinces. | Chi |
|---|---|---|
| The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar. | West side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic. | Tegapat<br>Anjengo<br>Cochin,<br>Calicut, |
| | Deccan, or Visiapour. | Tellicher<br>Cananore<br>Mangalo<br>Barcelore<br>Raolcond<br>Cawar,<br>Goa, Por<br>Rajapore<br>Dabal,<br>Dundee<br>Shoule<br>Bombay.<br>Englis<br>72. 49<br>Bassaim,<br>Salsette, |
| The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar. | Cambaya, or Guzurat. | Damon,<br>Surat,<br>21. 10<br>Swally<br>Barak,<br>Amedaba<br>Cambaya<br>Diu, Port |

RIVERS.] The Cattack or Mahanada, the Pudder, and the famous Kistna.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] T ready mentioned, running from north to sou side of this peninsula while it is summer on t of June, a south-west wind begins to blow fr Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts time all is serene upon the coast of Coroman ern coasts being so denominated). Toward rainy season and the change of the monsoons coast, which, being destitute of good harb dangerous for ships to remain there during t owing the periodical returns of English sh the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering eve from midnight to noon it blows off the land, and during the other twelve hours from th great refreshment to the inhabitants of the co soil is the same with that of the other parts like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fo and insects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this p plexion than those of the other peninsula of I to the equator, which makes some suspect the an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The great

faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Hindoostan, whose tribute from thence has been, ever since the invasion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government; but besides those soubahs and their imperial viceroys, many estates in this peninsula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are descendants of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent of the Mogul and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. From what has been said above, this peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government according to his own conveniency. We shall speak of those provinces belonging to the Malabar and Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and first of the eastern or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of the peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax. At present the prince is scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Tritchinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist in a pearl-fishery upon its coast. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch during the last war, and confirmed to the English by the treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjore.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the Bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visiapour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Bisnagar, belonging to the nabob of Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies Fort St. David, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East-Indies, but which has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to amend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, and inclosing

the contents by palisadoes: all diamonds above
nally belonged to the emperor. The district bel
tending about 40 miles round, is of little value fo
inhabitants of various nations are said to be dep
but its safety consists in the superiority of th
carries on a considerable trade with China, Persi

Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belon
kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamo
cheapness of its provisions, and for making whi
are ripe in January, has already been mentioned
to a prince called the Nizam, or soubah of the
and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of hi
Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes
of Golconda. East-south-east of Golconda lie
the English and Dutch have factories. The Engl
at Ganjam and Vizigapatam, on this coast; and t
The province of Orissa, from whence the Englis
part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golcond
from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth
verned chiefly by Moodajee Boosiah and his brot
rattas. In this province stands the temple of J
say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is a
black stone of about 4 or 500lbs. weight, with t
the top, to represent the eyes, and the nose and
vermillion.

The country of Deccan* comprehends several
some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglagna, I
the kingdom of Visiapour. The names, depende
of those provinces are extremely unsettled, they
by Aurungzebe, or his father, and subject to alm
and alterations. Their principal towns are Auren
or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the strongest pl
Near it is the famous pagoda of Elora, in a plai
square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars,
gures that surround it, are cut out of the natura
on the east of Golconda; and its capital, Beder
of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province
culiar to themselves.

Baglagna lies to the west of Telenga, and forms
of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portu
here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues s
tends almost twenty leagues to the north of Goa.
province: the western part is called Konkan,
with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Vi
had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and
150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same na
very fruitful. The principal places on this coast
Trapar, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur,

* This name Deccan signifies the South, and, in its n
includes the whole peninsula south of Hindoostan proper.
signification, it means only the countries situated between H
nate, and Orissa; that is, the provinces of Candeish, A
Orissa.
Rennell's Introduction to the Memoir of his Map of Hindoo

and Vingorla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable posses-
s on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.
Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of
finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is
d to contain 35 cities. Ahmedabad is the capital of the province,
ere there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with
richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant stands
rat, where the English have a flourishing factory.
Among the islands lying upon the same coast, is that of Bombay, be-
ging to the English East-India company. Its harbour can conveni-
tly contain 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven
les in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and har-
our are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the
nveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built;
d the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, cau-
on, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwhole-
eness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive
in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well
lt of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was
rt of the portion paid with the Infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who
ve it to the East-India company; and the island is still divided into
ree Roman catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are
lled popish Mestizos and Canarines; the former being a mixed breed
the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the coun-
y. The English have found methods to render this island and town,
der all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The
ader scarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of
ombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The
oops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives,
hen formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all
er the East-Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the island
mount to near 60,000, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the
actice of his religion unmolested.
Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Ele-
hanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world.
figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, pre-
nts itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An
asy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid
ock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is
t flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high,
ith capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of
e incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures,
hich have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Be-
ides the temple are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in
e stone—one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment
Solomon: also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but
e whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.
The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements
the East-Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingorla. The island
about twenty-seven miles in compass. It is one of the finest and
st fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb
ttlement, and was surpassed either in bulk or beauty by few of the
uropean cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this
land equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the
st of the Portuguese possessions of this coast, are under a viceroy, who

still keeps up the remains of the ancient splen
The rich peninsula of Salsette is dependent on
of the Portuguese territories, and is governed
the Mogul. The English factory of Corwar
sant and healthy of any upon the Malabar c
forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches
famous for producing rice, that supplies man
some of the Indies. The Canarines are said
by a lady, whose son has the title of Rajah;
counted the bravest and most civilized of any
markably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole
peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the
on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the
rin. The Malabar language, however, is co
and the country itself is rich and fertile, but in
whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a
The most remarkable places in Malabar are C
Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where
settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thir
licut, where the French and Portuguese have
various other distinct territories and cities.
the southernmost part of this peninsula, though
in extent, is famous for uniting in the same g
the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms
while on the other they are stripped of all their
phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mounta
which traverse the whole peninsula from south
posite sides of the Cape, the winds are continual
from the west on the west side, and from the e

In the district of Cochin, within Malabar,
thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tr
have records engraven on copper-plates in He
are said to be so poor, that many of them embr
The like discoveries of the Jews and their reco
made in China, and other places of Asia, which
speculations among the learned.

---

Before we close our account of Hindoostan,
scribe its present division, according to the
whom it is shared; and this is the more neces
give the reader a clearer idea of these extensive
time shew him how very considerable a portio
and their allies.

The celebrated Persian usurper, Thamas Kou
year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahommed
and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amou
lions sterling, restored the unhappy prince his
to Persia all the countries westward of the Indu

This dreadful incursion so weakened the au
that the viceroys of the different provinces eith
ance, or acknowledged a very precarious depe
in wars with each other, called in as allies the
France and England, who had been originally p
form establishments on the coasts. These, fro

European discipline, from allies, became in a short time principals an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the nch from Hindoostan; and thus a company of British merchants ve acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and pulation, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Hindoostan, m whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; ey were never wholly subjected, but, retiring to the northern part the Ghauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible moun-ins: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have ex-nded their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 00 British miles long, by 700 wide; besides the territory they ac-ired by the partition treaty, signed by Tippoo Sultan in March 1792.

Hyder Ally*, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war om the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient arratic called the kingdom of Mysore, within a few years acquired, continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of e peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable ene-y that the English ever experienced in Hindoostan, dying in 1783, ft to his son Tippoo Saib the peaceful possession of his dominions, su-erior in extent to the kingdom of England.

Tippoo engaged in two wars with the English, in the former of which e lost a considerable part of his territories, and in the latter his life, nd the remainder of his dominions, which were divided between the ritish, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, as also the territory appropriated y the company, in the final division of the Mysore country, after the aking of Seringapatam and the death of Tippoo Sultan.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, ren-er the following account of the present division of property in this reat empire absolutely necessary, in order to understand its modern istory.

## PRESENT DIVISION OF HINDOOSTAN.

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Mogul, hah Allum, the descendant of the great Tamerlane, is merely a nomi-al prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindoostan: he is per-itted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all hat remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed or more than 350 years.

The principal divisions of this country, as they stood at the peace ith Tippoo in 1792, were as follows, viz. The British possessions; tates in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta tates, and their tributaries; the territories of the Soubah of the Dec-an; and the dominions of Tippoo Sultan.

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The British possessions contain about 197,496 square British miles, which is 90,327 more than is contained by Great Britain and Ireland) nd about ten millions of inhabitants. They consist of three distinct overnments, viz.

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (says major Rennell) t e but little understood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an ou e of it. His military success, founded on the improvement of discipline; attenti merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that served under his b

Government of Calcutta or Bengal, { Bengal Soubah / Bahar Soubah / Benares Soubah }

Northern Circars, on the coast of O

Government of Madras, { The Jaghire / Territory of Cuddalore / ——— of Devicotta / ——— of Negipatam

Government of Bombay, - - on the

To these are to be added the districts ceded by T
treaty signed at Seringapatam on the 18th of Marc

Calicut and Palichaudcherry, yielding a revenue
Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry, -
Salem, Koosh, Namcool, and Sunkagherry,
Ahtoor, Purmutty, Shadmungul, and Vayloor,
Barra-Mahar, Raycotta, Darampoory, &c.

As also the territory appropriated by the company
of the Mysore country, after the taking of Seringa
of Tippoo Sultan.

The province of Canara, Mangalore,—districts of
tore, Deramporam, and Wynaad, together with the
city, and island of Seringapatam, yielding a revenu

Deduct provisions for the maintenance of the famili
der Ally Khan and of Tippoo Sultan, - -

At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the
2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late British
£.579,349. For the revenue of the other British
fore, p. 733.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government
and populous. It is finely watered by the Ganges
with their numerous navigable channels, and the
rivers they receive: it is fertilized by their periodic
by its natural situation is well secured against forei
a more particular description of this province, we
the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defect
is not only the want of connexion between its parts,
along an extensive coast, and separated from each
quently hostile, but that it is totally devoid of good
however, have been entertained of remedying the l

ners; contempt of state and ceremony, except what naturally aros
character; and his consequent economy in personal expences (the
form the chief distinction of what is called character among ot
with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular p
these together raised Hyder as far above the princes of Hindoostan
the late Prussian monarch raised him above the generality of Euro
I have ever considered Hyder as the FREDERICK of the East.
Hyder; but we are to consider that Hyder's ideas of mercy wer
standard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own char
clemency, as far above those of Tamerlane, Nadir Shah, and A
discipline above theirs.

the bar of the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called also Fort St. George. It is ill situated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kistna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and, though much declined, is still considerable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is BOMBAY, in a small island, and an unhealthy situation, but it is well fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Hindoostan.—TELLICHERRY, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

## ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the nabob of Oude,
- Fyzabad.
- Lucknow.

Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic,
- Arcot, on the Paliar, is the capital, though the nabob usually resides at Madras.
- Gingee, the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatic.
- Tritchinopoly, near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.
- Seringham pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Hindoostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests, who constantly reside here in voluptuous indolence.
- Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Hindoostan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither, bring in an immense revenue.
- Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of small states of the same name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker, in the soubah of Guzerat,
- Ahmedabad.
- Cambay.

Territory of the rajah of Ghod,
- Gwalior, a celebrated fortress.

## MAHRATTA STATES, in Alliance with the I
### TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number who have one common head, called the Paishwa, however, their obedience is merely nominal, as th against each other, and are seldom confederated, defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of the Paishwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Ghauts.

Satara, the nominal ratta states; the Paishw at Poonah.

Aurungabad, Amedn are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Ghauts and t called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celeb and his successors, whose capital was the stong taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755: this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime p

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to

In the Dooab, being the circar of Bancapoor, with of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of

In Gooty, the district of Sundoor,

To these are to be added the territory assigned t Mahrattas by the final division of the dominions of the defeat and death of that prince.

Harpoonelly, Soonda (above the Ghauts), Annag in Chittledroog, and in Bednore, - -

## TERRITORY of the NIZAM, an Ally to

The possessions of the Nizam, or Soubah of the son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the da, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godav principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the w subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paishwa, o on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratt northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic south. I am not perfectly clear (says major Ren his western boundary, which, during his wars with subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand g tends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Auru and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. drabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussi riv fortress of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni and Rachore, which were zalet Jung (brother to the Nizam) during his lifeti hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sallapoor of the Beemah river, together with some other raj ries. The Guntoor circar also belongs to him.

ajor, these dominions, including his tributaries and feudatories, are no ss than 430 miles in length, from N.W. to S.E. by 300 wide.

To the above, we have now to add those which Tippoo Sultan ceded him in the treaty of peace, signed March 18, 1792, viz.

| | Koonteary Pagodas. |
|---|---|
| Keryah (or Cuddapah), Cummum, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of - - - - - | 9,71,390 |
| In Gooty, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - | 51,782 |
| In Adoni (Mooka), - - - - - - - - - - - - | 12,162 |
| In the Dooab, being parts of Rachore, and Moodgul, - | 2,81,332 |
| | 13,16,666 |

To these are to be added the districts of Mysore assigned to the Nizam, after the defeat and death of Tippoo Sultan:

| | |
|---|---|
| In Gooty, Gurrumcondah, and Chittledroog, which, deducting 70,000 pagodas for a personal jaghire to Kummeer-ud-deen Khan and relations, afford a revenue of | 537,332 |

## BERAR MAHRATTAS.

This country is very little known to Europeans.

Nagpour is the capital.
Balasore has considerable trade.
Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important post which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the government of Bengal and Madras.

## NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.

They are governed at present by Sindia, Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

Ougein, the residence of Sindia.
Indoor, the residence of Holkar.
Calpy, the residence of Gungdar Punt.
Sagur, the residence of Ballagee.

## TERRITORY OF THE RAJAH OF MYSORE.

| | Koonteary Pagodas. |
|---|---|
| On the defeat and death of Tippoo Sultan, Maha Rajah, a descendant of the ancient Rajahs of Mysore, was made sovereign of a part of the territory of Mysore, consisting of certain talooks or districts of Seringapatam, Bednore, and Chittledroog, affording a revenue of - | 1,347,076 |

Chittledroog, Harpoonelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli.—The Abdalli are properly a sect or tribe of Afghans, but the name seems to be applied to the Afghans in general. They inhabit a country stretching from the mountains of Tartary to the Arabian Sea, and from the Indus to the confines of Persia. They are a robust hardy race of men; and being generally addicted to a state of predatory warfare, their manners largely partake of a barbarous insolence, and they avow a fixed contempt for the occupations of civil life. The principal cities of Afghanistan are Candahar and Cabul, the former of which was the capital; but the late and present sultans have kept their court at Cabul. About the year 1720 an army of Afghans invaded Persia, took Ispahan, and made the Shah Hussein prisoner. They kept possession of Ispahan and the southern provinces for ten years, when

they were defeated in several battles, and driven
Nadir Kuli, commonly known in Europe by th
After Nadir had deposed his sovereign Shah Th
took Candahar; but afterwards received a co
Afghans into his service, who became his favour
his assassination in 1747, Abdalli Ahmed Kh
Afghan troops, though furiously attacked by th
effected a safe retreat into his own country, whe
be acknowledged sovereign of the Afghan terri
Ahmed Shah. He was succeeded in 1773 by hi
he by Zemaun Shah, the present sultan.

Country of the Seiks.—The Seiks are a pow
of several small independent states, connected
union. They possess the whole of Lahore, the
tan, and the west part of Delhi. This tract e
north-west to south-east, and is from 150 to
part between Altock and Behker cannot be less t
of their sect was named Nanock, and lived in
sixteenth century. They are the descendants of
*seiks*, in the Sanscrit language, signifying disci
sists almost entirely of horse, of which it is s
200,000 into the field. The Seiks are now b
powerful states of Hindoostan. Their capital i

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little kn
Country of Zebeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohil
Territory of Agra on the Jumna.
Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohilla
bounded by the dominions of Oude.
Bundelcund.
Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

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# PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 1300 | between | 44 and 70 East |
| Breadth 1100 | | 25 and 44 Nort |

BOUNDARIES.] MODERN Persia is boun
of Ararat, or Daghi
from Circassian Tartary, on the North-West
which divides it from Russia, on the North; by
divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the North-E
East; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs
on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on t

The kingdom is divided into the following pr
tiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancien
Herat and Esterabad; Sableustan, including th
Candahar; and Seigiestan, the ancient Drangiana
contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedro
ancient Persia. The South-West division, on t
ntains the provinces of Chusistan, the ancient S
ancient Parthia. The North-West divisio

Caspian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea and Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan and Mazanderan.

NAME.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danaë. Less fabulous authors supposed it derived from Peras, which signifies a horseman,—the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

AIR.] Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of these mountains, which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces wine and oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country, and the Gulf of Bassorah formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, particularly roses, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed.—Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a great quantity is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulf, for supplying the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indif-

ferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; t
Dushtistaan, lying to the south-west, it is remarka
are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of
neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrate
their fleece; "they have tails of an extraordinary
have seen weigh," says Mr. Francklin, "upwards
those which are sold in the markets do not weigh
Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is
natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the
tains affording an ample supply of snow throu
meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water an
out any expence worthy consideration. This sno
the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts t
the markets. The price of provisions is regulate
the greatest exactness, by the daroga, or judg
sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shop
mand more, under the severe penalty of losing his

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat
mountains of Daghistan; and the vast chain of mo
rus, and their divisions, run through the middle
Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no cou
extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. T
are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, ancientl
in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining th
the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets falling from
the country: but their streams are so inconsiderab
of them can be navigated even by boats. The
be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia
Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Eup
the west.

WATER.] The want of rivers, in Persia, occasi
ter; but the defect, where it prevails, is admira
means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other in

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mi
lead, and, above all, turquoise stones, which are
Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the
ries of red, white, and black marble, have also
Taurus.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is i
with any
ing the population of a country so little known as
we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern a
times, raised there, the numbers it contains must
Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; th
marrying Georgian and Circassian women. Th
wards the south are somewhat swarthy. The me
but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow o
beard of their chin to reach up to their temples;
wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear v
bans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and
ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very
never pull off their caps or their turbans out of
king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their s

shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor, and sit at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They use great ceremony towards their superiors, and politely accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that, when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible seems to be ostentation in their equipage and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin observes) distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves

These houses consist of one room, with the fl
feet below the surface of the earth, and the li
mitted to the apartment by means of several sm
tures made in the dome. In the centre is a larg
earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; a
small alcoves, raised about two feet above the ter
sicians and spectators are seated. When all
assembled, which is on every Friday morning by
mediately strip themselves to the waist: on whic
a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his
clubs, of about a foot and a half in length, and cu
pear; these they rest upon their shoulders, and th
they move them backwards and forwards with gre
with their feet at the same time, and straining ev
produce a very profuse perspiration. After conti
about half an hour, upon a signal given they all
clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to m
briskly in unison with the music, which is all t
lively tune. Having continued this for some ti
wrestling, in which the master of the house is alw
and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally pro
spectators pay each a shahee in money, equal to
for which they are refreshed with a calean to smok
mode of exercise must contribute to health, as we
vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It
resemblance to the gymnastic exercises of the ancie

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviou
most polished people of the east. While a rude and
peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish natio
and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would
do honour to the most civilized nations. They ar
civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being g
gious prejudices so very prevalent in every other M
they are fond of inquiring after the manners and c
and, in return, very readily afford any informa
their own country. The practice of hospitality
grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly ho
enter his house and partake of what the family affor
out of a house without smoking a calean, or taking
ment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they s
a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravag
cal compliments on the most trifling occasions. Th
(which in fact means nothing) is observed not o
higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artifi
whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, to offe
Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush,
behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europea
time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conve
totally unknown in Persia, as, that *walls have ear*
the mouth of every one.—The fear of chains which
has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation
rank to themselves, is marked with signs of the mos
submission; while, on the contrary, they are as l
bearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, except those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and sparkling eyes of the women, which is a very striking beauty, is in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called surma), which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

Marriages.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongst their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel, of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelves tomans, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the cadi, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order:—first, the music and dancing girls, after which the presents, in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting, and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The cadi, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman, who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia, declares, that amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persians are co similar to those in other Mahomedan countries. On sulman, the relations and friends of the deceased bei loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is on a bier, and carried to the place of interment wit attended by a Mullah, or priest, who chaunts passa all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the gion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance i grave, crying out at the same time, *Lah Illah, Ill L* God, but God. After interment, the relations of home, and the women of the family make a mixtur and spices, which they eat in memory of the decea of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they like honour. This custom seems to be derived fr quity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libatio made to the memory of departed souls.

RELIGION.] The Persians are Mahomedans of which reason the Turks, who follow the succession Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poss more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; it is mingled with some Brahmin superstitions. A made between the Brahmins and the Persian *Guebres* tend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient of Zoroaster. That both of them held originally pur a Supreme Being, may be easily proved; but the I Perses accuse the Gaurs, who still worship the fire, o those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle int the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the de bres.' This ground is impregnated with inflammat contains several old little temples; in one of which to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, w end of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, burning with very pure spirits. The Mahomedans a mies of the Gaurs, who were banished out of Per Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, thou few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Ro have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and countries. Even to this day, many sects are found Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. S Soussees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their p profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians hav a mixture of Judaism and Mahomedanism; and ar the Persian Gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Chr merous in Persia.

The Persians observe the fast during the month o month of the Mahomedan year) with great strict About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal wh and from that time until the next evening at sun-se nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the course of of a calean, or the smallest drop of water, should r fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no av -il the next morning they are allowed to refresh

last, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahomedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time; and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its continuance, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed; wherefore it is denominated the Night of Power.

Language.] The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak Turkish: and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian Gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenor: *Ei Padere ma kih der osmoni; pac basched mám tu; bay ayed padeschahi tu; schwad chwaáste tu henzjunáaukih der osmon niz derzemin; béh mara imrouz nán kifaf rouz mara; wadarguasar mara konáhan ma zjunantóma niz mig sarim ormán mara; wador ozmajisch minedázzmara; likin chalas kun mara ez escherir.* Amen.

Learning and learned men.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the east. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and in verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote in Persian a book called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalists. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the East sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his muse by all the honours and splendour of a court: and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Persians ar
similar to those in other Mahomedan countrie
sulman, the relations and friends of the de
loud lamentations over the corpse; after
on a bier, and carried to the place of
attended by a Mullah, or priest, w
all the way to the grave. If any
corpse during the procession, h
gion, to run up to the bier, a
grave, crying out at the sam
God, but God. After in
home, and the women o
and spices, which they
of it to their friends
like honour. This
quity, as we read
made to the mem
RELIGION.]
which reason
Bekr, call t
more fant
it is min
made S
tend t
of Z
a S
P
bower of Mosellay.

At present learning is at a very low ebb an
sented skill in astronomy is now reduced to
science, and terminates in judicial astrology,
world are more superstitious than the Persians
in greatest esteem among them is that of me
mal variance with astrology, because every
hour fixed by the astrologer, which often de
scriptions. It is said, however, that the Pe
and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, an
the practices of Galen and Avicenna. The p
in this country; and almost equally rare are
are fatal in other places; such as the gout,
consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian
fore pretty much circumscribed, and they are
which is exercised by barbers, whose chief k
blood; for they trust the healing of green w
the air, and the good habit of the patient's bo

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The
in Pers
their magnificence and expence, than their be
than nineteen columns, which formerly belon
of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is al
composed of excellent Parian marble. The
buildings are found in many parts of Persia,
and beauty which are displayed in the Greek
of the kings of Persia are stupendous works;
and highly ornamented with sculptures. The
fices is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty fe

Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a re- erect such a column of human skulls; hels, he performed his vow by substi- els furnishing one.

nal, and esteemed among the the famous Naptha, near for their surprizing qua- sities in this country is the natory neighbourhood, already ion.

C EDIFICES.] The houses of men of ame taste with those of the Asiatic Turks are seldom above one story high, built of or walking on, and thick walls. The hall is re clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no com- with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the mid- room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlets, th carpets under them.

Ispahan, or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, thin a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow d crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat ofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and dif- rent families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile length, and about half as much in breadth: and we are told, that the yal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three les in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 ca- ravanserais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, reets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and ter accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to re contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by adi Khan during his wars; so that we may easily suppose that it lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. wer was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses re inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an n town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, g laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of ch are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best ny in Persia. This town is the capital of Farsistan, or Persia pro- , and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an common number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble build- , but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravan- ; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (so d from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handsomest. is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of k, and roofed something in the style of the piazzas in Covent-gar- , it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the trades- , merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale a variety of ds of all kinds; these shops are the property of the Khan, and are ed to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick;

the entrance through a handsome arched ga
place for the baggage and merchandize, and
low, commodious apartments for the merch
are also rated at a moderate monthly sum
above-mentioned bazar is another spacious
form, the front of which is ornamented wit
ed work, in order to represent China-ware,
the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on
sian Gulf, were formerly places of great
The English and other Europeans have fa
they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Ba
and Tartars, who come hither with the ca
various inland cities of Asia, under the co

Mosques and bagnios.] It has been t
here under a general head, as their form
the same all over the Mahomedan countries

Mosques are religious buildings, square,
fore the chief gate there is a square court,
and low galleries round it, whose roof is s
Those galleries serve for places of ablution
into the mosque. About every mosque t
called minarets, each of which has three lit
another. These towers, as well as the mos
and adorned with gilding and other ornam
stead of a bell, the people are called to pr
pointed for that purpose. No woman is al
nor can a man with his shoes or stocking
is a place of entertainment for strangers d
tomb of the founder, with conveniences
praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (accordi
many fine mosques, particularly that built
which is a noble one. Being very well dis
in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity
observed. It is of a square form: in the c
water, made for performing the necessary ab
on the four sides of the building are arched
votion, some of the fronts of which are cov
Kherim Khan dying before the work was co
been made up with a blue and white ena
apartments, on the walls on each side, are
from the Koran, in the Nushki character;
square is a large dome, with a cupola at to
place appropriated for the devotion of the va
this is lined throughout with white marble,
blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has
pended from the roof of the dome. In the
mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi
but its date is nearly coeval with the city
been inhabited by Mahomedans; it is a squa
and has apartments for prayer on each side;
tions in the old Cusic character, which of t
quity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahomedan countries

rected for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but tener circular, built of white well-polished stone or marble. Each gnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing, the cond contains the water, and the third the bath, all of them paved ith black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very cu- ous, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it it is pain- l. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and retches his limbs as if he were dislocating every bone in the body; l which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in e afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies suc- ed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

Police.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very rict. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever permitted either to come in or go out during the night; the keys of e different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and re- aining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or rums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the cond at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tabla has ounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the daroga, or dge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and nveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next orning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot ive a very good account of themselves, are punished either by the astinado or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the cazi, and ecclesiastical ones particularly divorces) by the sheick al sellaum, or head of the faith, n office answering to that of mufti in Turkey. Justice is administered Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, cing always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished ith the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the elly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in ne of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires torment—a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia ery uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and rul, that humanity shudders at them.

Manufactures and commerce.] The Persians equal, if not ex- d, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, car- ts, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, richness, neatness, and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, d their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. ir silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving ir lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are not to be alled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manu- tures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent ar- ts, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. heir jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are igno- nt of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon e whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages, from the form of eir government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often gross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other na- ons, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they

had; but the perpetual wars they have been e
their commerce. The great scheme of the Engl
Persians through Russia, promised vast advanta
it has hitherto answered the expectations of neit
of Petersburgh is not fond of suffering the En
selves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of
by the Russians. The Caspian Sea is about 6
broad in the widest part; it has no tide, but
drawing from 9 to 10 feet water, with several
sian ports are Kislar and Gurief. Derbent and
sia, as also Einzellee and Astrabad, with Baku
haven in this sea, and which has a fortress surro
As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are este
Resehd on the Caspian is one of the first comm
of Asia, and supplies the bordering province
chandize.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both
carious, as resting in the breast of a despotic a
arch. The Persians, however, had some funda
ment. They exclude from their throne femal
progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualifica
cession. In other respects, the king's will w
The instances that have been given of the cr
practised by the Mahomedan kings of Persia,
especially during the last two centuries. The re
tian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their
was, that the Persians were such brutes, and
that they could not be governed without the
cruelties. But this was only a wretched and i
his own barbarity. The favourites of the pr
male, are his only counsellors, and the smalle
will is attended with immediate death. The P
of nobility, so that the respect due to every
high station, expires with himself. The king
fer a younger son to his throne, by putting o
brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of th
of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk a
condition of Persians is exempted from severe
The governors of provinces have particular lan
maintaining their retinues and troops; and the
expences of the court, king's household, and gre
water that is let into fields and gardens is subje
ers, who are not Mahomedans, pay each a duc

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted form
now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Sin
century, however, their kings have raised bodi
gular troops of both brought to the field, even
not exceed 60,000; but, according to the mo
they are easily recruited in case of a defeat.
fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war
a royal navy; but since his death we hear no

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Per
couchant, looking at the rising sun. His title

han, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To its of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the ant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

HISTORY.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whose descendants, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Timur-Leng, or Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomed himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, though some of them were valliant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such a disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hussein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Thamas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out; and after assuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Hindoostan, and the amazing booty he made there, have been mentioned in the description of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder from India, losing great part of it upon his return, by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and strangling the chief priests who resisted, that it was thought his brain was disordered; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up: and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions: different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render him-

self independent of the other, torrents of b
shocking crimes were committed with im
the country, from Gombroon to Russia, pr
of instances of the misery and devastation
by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to
tenders to the throne of Persia, from the d
final establishment of Kerim Khan's gover
including himself. Kerim Khan Zund wa
Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death w
Shirauz and other places had declared for
last, after various encounters with doubtfu
due all his rivals; and finally to establish
He was in power about thirty years, the lat
Persia under the appellation of vakeel, or
receive the title of Shah. He made Shira
dence, in gratitude for the assistance he h
tants, and those of the southern provinces.
in the eightieth year of his age, regrett
esteemed and honoured him as the glory
most deservedly celebrated for the public
and the excellent police which he maintaine
reign, there was not in Shirauz a single ri
besides these merits, his aversion to severe
and kindness to the poor, his toleration o
sions, his partiality for Europeans, and
together with his great military abilities ar
him not only beloved by his own subject
foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the
competitors have been desirous of filling the
we shall only mention the two principal.
possession of the provinces of Mazanderan
cities of Ispahan, Hamadad, and Tauris,
sovereign. Jaaffar Khan has possession of
provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: he also
from the province of Carmania, and anoth
Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute.
in general more fruitful than those to the n
been so frequently the scenes of action duri

Jaaffar Khan is a middle-aged man, very
his right eye: in the places where he is ac
loved and respected. He is very mild in h
Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent po
He is very kind and obliging to strangers i
in particular. Of the two competitors wh
government of Persia, he is the most likel
his opponent, to restore the country to a
but it will require a long space of time to
ties into which the different revolutions ha
if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, o
of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye;—
and leafless, by the cruel ravages of war a

Intelligence was received at Constantino
Jaaffar Khan had been dethroned by his br
entered into the possession of his dominion

# ARABIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1300 | between | 35 and 60 East longitude | | 700,000 |
| Breadth 1200 | | 12 and 30 North latitude | | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the North; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassorah, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

| *Divisions.* | *Subdivisions.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Arabia Petræa, N. W. | - - - - - - - - - | SUEZ, E. long. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50. |
| 2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle. | Haggiaz, or Mecca | MECCA, E. lon. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20. |
| | | Siden |
| | | Medina |
| | Tehama | Dhafar. |
| 3. Arabia Felix, S. E. | Mocha | MOCHA, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45. |
| | | Sibet |
| | Hadramut | Hadramut |
| | Casseen | Casseen |
| | Segur | Segur |
| | Oman or Muscat | Muscat |
| | Jamama | Jamama |
| | Bahara | Elcalf. |

NAME.] It is remarkable, that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians, for they seldom let any merchandize pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few mountains, springs, or rivers, in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the northmost limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some

parts, is nothing more than immense sands, w
by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and s
tains by which whole caravans have been buri
deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are gu
compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly
says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flock
thick with corn; here are no vine-yards or olive-
is a lonesome, desolate wilderness, no other way
plains covered with sand, and mountains that ar
rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever
the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the inte
the night is almost equal to that of the heat in th
southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the H
an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile.
lands, which are chiefly about the towns near th
balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, fra
and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, car
mons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; hone
with a small quantity of corn and wine. This cou
coffee and its dates, which last are found scarce
perfection as here and in Persia. There are few t
Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia
medaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence
and parched deserts of this country; for they are
can throw up the liquor from their stomach into th
means they can travel six or eight days withou
usually carry 800lbs. weight upon their backs, w
during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel
due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a
bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. It is
the Arabs, that wherever there are trees the wat
when they draw near a pool, their camels will sm
set up their great trot till they come to it. The
well known in Europe, and have contributed to in
those in England. They are only fit for the saddle
their make as much as for their swiftness and high
breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Moc

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS. } The Arabians, lik
of Asia, are of a
and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair an
are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said
martial, brave people, expert at the bow and la
became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksme
of the inland country live in tents, and remove
with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are such thieves, th
grims are struck with terror on approaching the de
headed by a captain, traverse the country in co
horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; a
so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabia
of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca,
persons and plundered it of every thing valuable,
a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mer
prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them ith a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or eep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, ut no stockings; and have a cap, or turban, on their head. Many of em go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are o wrapped up that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahomedans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; nd prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and ike them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomed their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still pagans; but the people in general profess Mahomedanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans, and used by Mahomedans in their worship: for, as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Paternoster in Arabic is as follows:

*Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri masebiatic, cama fi-ssama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefafna iaum beiaum; wagsor lena donubena wachataina, cama nog for nachna c lemenaca doina; wala tadolchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nuescherir.* Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS.] What is called the Desert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to shew the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia, are Mocha, Aden, Muscat, Suez, and Juddah, where most of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha is well built, the houses very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chinam, or stucco, that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Suez

the Arsinoë of the ancients, is surrounded by
mean, ill-built place. The ships are forced to
town, to which the leading channel has only
Juidah is the place of the greatest trade in th
commerce between Arabia and Europe meets,
former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c.
cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the w
nues of these, with the profits of the port, are sh
and the sheriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medi
tice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet
magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; i
in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, wi
the end, of extraordinary height and architectur
ful appearance, and are conspicuous at a grea
has a hundred gates, with a window over each
within is decorated with the finest gildings an
of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost i
man being required, by his religion, to come hi
or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty mil
way to which Mahomed fled when he was dri
place where he was buried, is a stately mosq
lars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, wh
ing. It is called the "*Most Holy*," by the
placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomed, co
under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bash
the grand-signor, renews every year. The c
rives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to
afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a r
riously wrought, and adorned with precious
grims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such nu

Government.] The inland country of A
ment of many petty princes, who are styled x
them including the offices of king and priest, i
caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mah
appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and t
is hereditary, and they have no other laws tha
ran, and the comments upon it. The northe
to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws re
receive large gratuities from the grand-signo
grims that pass through their country from the
trymen. The Arabians have no standing re
emirs command both the persons and the purse
necessity of affairs requires.

History.] The history of this country in
that of all others; for, as the slavery and su
make a great part of their history, that of th
posed of their conquests or independence. T
from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foret
invincible, "have their hands against every
hands against theirs." They are at present,
the remotest ages, during the various conquests
and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity
wards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia,
deed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the

southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomed, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, from the luxuriancy of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and sweetest region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of the Happy.

Mahomed was born in the sixth century, in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a subtile genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth, and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while, at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of these, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomed was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy—a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal. Mahomed gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had ta-

care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the e
at this time much addicted to the opinions of Ari
Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, a
Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled
fled into these corners of the world from the perse
Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of tha
inhabitants of these countries were pagans. Thes
attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry;
religious principle is weak, had given themselves
sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the
in the gratifications of sense, which, together wit
destination, composed the sole principles of their rel
Mahomed's system was exactly suited to these thre
gratify the two former, he declared that there
created the world, and governed all things in it;
rious prophets into the world to teach his will
whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most emin
vours of these had proved ineffectual, and God ha
his last and greatest prophet, with a commission m
Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had
only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who
lieve or obey them; and for this end, to establi
earth, which should propagate the divine law thr
that God had designed utter ruin and destruction
refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful follow
spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward
provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensua
cially those of love; that the pleasures of such as
the faith would be peculiarly intense, and vastly tr
rest. These, together with the prohibition of drin
(a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and
destination, were the capital articles of Mahomed'
no sooner published than a great number of his c
them with implicit faith. They were written by th
tioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or A
eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Bo
Mahomed, however, was familiar to the inhabitant
the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced
more enlightened and leading men entered into a de
but Mahomed getting notice of their intention, fled
to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet.
miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, gr
and the inhabitants of Medina received him with
this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Ch
year of Mahomed's age, and the tenth of his minis
the Mahomedans, compute their time; and the æra
Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomed, by the assistance of the inhabitants
others whom his insinuation and address daily attac
over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an
doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system a
was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabit
the East, who were previously disposed to it. Aria
tiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became M
the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egy

Mahomed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens, or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors), reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable portion of mankind.

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## THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bongo, Tonsa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. Their chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The islands of Japan are governed by a despotic sovereign, called the *Kubo*, besides whom there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor, entitled the *Dairi*. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honours paid to their gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, the rays of the sun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court, the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred, that they are never suffered to be cleansed or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, while he is asleep. His holiness never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time; they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power of government is exercised by the kubo.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacquer ware, known by the name of Japan. The Japanese are gross idolaters, and so irreconcileable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasaki, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes and high eye-brows are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

The dress of the Japanese may with more
ment than that of any other part of the w
fers from that of every other nation, but is un
down to the most inferior subject, similar in be
most surprising belief) has been unchanged for
It consists of one or more loose gowns, tied a
sash. People of rank have them made of silk
entire suits. Women generally wear a grea
ners, and much longer, and have them more or
er silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their
right posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo,
and within, and white-washed. They general
the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited.
with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly ma
raised two feet from the ground, and covere
mats are laid. The public buildings, such as
larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in
tecture; and the roofs, which are decorated w
singular appearance, are their greatest ornamen

The towns are sometimes of a considerable s
gates, and frequently surrounded with walls a
with towers, especially if a prince or governor
enter there. The town of Jeddo is said to be
in circumference, or about twenty-one French
tize with Pekin. The streets are straight an
distances divided by gates; and at each gate th
from the top of which any fire that breaks out
accident that not unfrequently happens there se

The furniture in Japan is as simple as the st
cupboards, barrans, sofas, beds, tables, chairs, w
nor any thing else of the kind, are to be found in
greater part of these the Japanese are utter stra
mats serve them for chairs and tables. A sm
inches square, and four in height, is set dow
company at every meal, which is served up n
Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in th
furniture; they are made of a compound meta
toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of thei
them to warm their houses from November to M
fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they
standing upon legs. These are lined on the ins
ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lig
seems to be prepared in some manner which
not at all dangerous. The first compliment offer
houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco.
sexes equally; and are, within or without
companions. The whole nation are naturally
whether public or private, has a bath, of which
is made by the whole family. Obedience to p
superiors, are the characteristics of this nation.
conversations between equals abound also with
to this children are early accustomed by the ex
Their penal laws are very severe; but punishme
Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes
mitted. Commerce and manufactures flourish

ople have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, en to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreign- s but the Dutch and Chinese, and, in both cases, with companies of rileged merchants. Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured oods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually up- ards of 200,000 deer-skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest art of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandize they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consists in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, nd from 25,000 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on im- orts and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch com- pany do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they end an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, suc- otas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief is said to be Guam (east longitude 140, north latitude 14), are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering. We know nothing of them worth particular mention, excepting that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an oriental island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the culti- vated parts are the same with the Chinese already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The ori- ginal inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most un- wholesome part of the island; the coast, and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spa- niards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestes, a mix- ture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards con- quered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Aca- pulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in these islands. If a sprig of

orange or lemon-tree is planted here, it becom
bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuria
incredible. The tree amet supplies the nativ
is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields
draught; this abounds in the mountains, whe

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 in
vite, lying at the distance of three leagues, a
of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was
der general Draper and admiral Cornish, who
humanely suffered the Archbishop, who was t
same time, to ransom the place for about a mi
gain, however, was ungenerously disowned
Spain, so that great part of the ransom never
government is settled there, but the Indian inh
tax. The other islands, particularly Mindan
Manilla, are governed by petty princes of th
sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahom

Upon the whole, though these islands are
fusion of Nature, yet they are subject to mo
thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is
ous and venomous creatures, and even herbs an
kill almost instantaneously. Some of their m

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the S
These are not out of sight of each other, and
of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Ph
of east longitude, and between one degree sou
They are in number five, viz. Bachian, M
and Tydore. The islands produce neither co
inhabitants live upon bread made of sago. T
sists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast qu
nopolised by the Dutch with so much jealousy
plants, lest the natives should sell the superf
nations. These islands, after being subject to
governed by three kings, subordinate to the
largest of them, though not more than thirty
The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria;
Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are
128 degrees east longitude, and between four
comprehending the islands of Lantor, the c
Lantor, Polerong, Rosingying, Pooloway, and
belonging to the Dutch on the islands are th
400. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows
they are entirely subject to the Dutch. The
in June and August.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a larg
considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact,
ated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, betw
degrees of south latitude, and 120 leagues to
Amboyna is about seventy miles in circumfe
Dutch garrison of 7 or 800 men, besides small
clove plantations. It is well known, that wh
driven off this island, the trade of it was carr
Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in
murdering the English, and thereby engrossi

it of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be transmitted as a me-rial of Dutch infamy at that period to all posterity. This tragical nt happened in 1622.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situated under the equa-, between the island of Borneo and the Spice Islands, at the distance 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. is island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes m the north, and periodical rains. Its chief productions are pepper d opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a riety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortifi-tion on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three ngs, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and deed in almost all the oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses ilt on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they ll up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. hey are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They rry on a large trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is e most capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewise fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two her Spice Islands lying under the equator, and will sink any ship at attempts to traffic in those seas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. These are situated in the Indian Ocean, etween 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight de-rees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands f Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, om their great extent and importance, require to be separately escribed.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and, till New-olland was discovered to be an island, was considered to be the largest land in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and un-ealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the mid-le of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, cam-hor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ran-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational eings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants live n the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea coast is overned by Mahomedan princes; the chief port of this island is Benjar-lasseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java n the south-east, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda; it divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees d upwards north-west of it, and five on the south-east; and is 1000 iles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold, that has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures; but lr. Marsden, in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown o the ancients. – Its chief trade with the Europeans is in pepper. The nglish East-India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen and ort Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pep-er. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahomedan princes who ossess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; d the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those f the adjacent islands.

* There is a mountain in the island which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whose mmit, above the level of the sea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of enerife by 577 feet.

[illegible] sometimes very heav
[illegible] Earthquakes
[illegible] on the island. Th
[illegible] hither from the
[illegible] by a very diffe
[illegible] with the Europe
[illegible] those of the Malays
[illegible] between the distric
[illegible] at Palimban, on
[illegible] of the bark of
[illegible] and write f
[illegible] of other eastern
[illegible] Sumatra are a fre
[illegible] independent of eac
[illegible] All of them have laws,
[illegible] and terminate disp
[illegible] the women, l
[illegible] as a man's head, but
[illegible] the Alps. Th
[illegible] is well inhab
[illegible] inhabitants o
[illegible] have no king, but
[illegible] generally at varia
[illegible] with do
[illegible] their points pro
[illegible] pieces of bamboo,
[illegible] by the gras
[illegible] Such of their ene
[illegible] and eat; and their sl
[illegible] where the unmarried men
[illegible] a man may purchase
[illegible] number seldom exceeds eight.
[illegible] with the husband, and the hou
[illegible] separate fire-place. It is
[illegible] Europe is produced. Th
[illegible] about two feet
[illegible] Within about
[illegible] which is very little
[illegible] which entirely sur
[illegible] who are tall and well ma
[illegible] and sneak a d
[illegible] neighbouring islands
[illegible] JAVA belongs to the
[illegible] commercial monarchy, the capit
[illegible] in the latitude
[illegible] and furnished with
[illegible] The town itself is built in th
[illegible] and a half in cir
[illegible] regular fortifications;
[illegible] itself. The govern
[illegible] and European police, an
[illegible] general of the Indies. When he appear
[illegible] and officers, and with a splendor
[illegible] except upon some solemn oc
[illegible] is strong; and its fine canals,

er it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its govern-t, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, re the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, ch are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world; the nese residing in this island are computed at 100,000; but about 000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest nce ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too un-oked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men tantly resides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in island and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands. These islands lie at the rance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tro-al fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited a harmless inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by ture, the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the dian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the southern extremity of the ther Peninsula of India being separated from the coast of Coroman-l by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The tives call it, with some show of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, on, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold and silver, and all kinds precious stones except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound re. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides me curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, oats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon ephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted: but several oxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The hief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best l all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is ound in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle part of the country is mountainous d woody, so that the rich and beautiful valleys are left in the posses-on of the Dutch, who have in a manner shut up the king in his capital ity, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, that he has scarcely any communication with other nations, or any roperty in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the cient inhabitants are called Cinglasses, who, though idolaters, value emselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are, general, a sober, inoffensive people, and are mingled with Moors, alabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon tree, which is native of this island, has two if not three barks, which form the true nnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and he body of the tree, which, when stripped, is white, serves for build-g and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of is delicious island to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they pelled, and have monopolised it ever since to themselves. Indeed, in nuary 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken y the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored

to the Dutch by the last treaty of peace.
taken by the English, in whose possessio

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cl
rocks just above the water, lying between
north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They
Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade
a kind of small shells, which go, or rath
upon the coasts of Guinea, and other parts
Maldives is an excellent commodity in a
tree (says a well-informed author) they b
tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging,
and firing, are all from this useful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY
speaking of India. With regard to the
islands, nothing certain can be said. Each
but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, I
so frequent among them, that it is diffic
not very expert in these matters, to know
same may be almost said of their religion
certainly pagan, yet it is intermixed wit
Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

The sea, which separates the southern po
schatka from Japan, contains a number
north-north-east to south-south-west, wh

ISLANDS. They are upwards of twent
rainous, and in several of them are volc
principal of these islands are inhabited: b
entirely desert and unpeopled. They diff
respect both to their situation and natural
the more northern ones are composed of l
southern produce canes, bamboos, vines,
bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on
as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, an
Some of the inhabitants of these islands ha
panese, in their manners, language, and
very much resemble the Kamtschadales.
ledge the sovereignty of the empire of Ru
pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians d
probity in their conduct, and are courteou
sity renders them timid, and prompts the
particular veneration for old age. They
ever he be, but have an especial affection
families. Their language is agreeable to
pronounce it slowly. The men are empl
sea-animals and whales, and catching fowl
the wood that their forests produce, or
shores. The women have charge of the k
the northern isles they sew, and make dif
nettles. The southern islanders are more
northern, and carry on a sort of commerc
export whale oil, furs, and eagles' feather
return, they bring Japanese utensils of me
lers, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of
all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

# AFRICA.

FRICA, the third grand division of the globe, in shape bears some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern t of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the nt or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a penula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, out sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, ually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length from north to uth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to e Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4300 miles; and the oadest part, from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees west longitude, to Cape ardasui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is oo miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Meterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the thmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it om Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by e great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the quator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far reater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost supportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the n, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and nks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts f this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as rope and Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom lls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the ghest mountains. The natives in these scorching regions, would as on expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that ater by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, asing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa are the Gambia, which ls into the Atlantic or Western Ocean at Cape St. Mary, and is vigable for ships of 150 tons burden five hundred miles from its ree; the Senegal, which rises about a hundred miles east of e Gambia, and falls, likewise, into the Atlantic Ocean, about ghty miles north of Cape Verd, after running a much longer rse. The Niger, which rises about ninety miles to the east of e head of the Senegal, and runs *eastward** by Tombuctoo, Houssa,

* This river has long been an object of research and dispute, with respect to its origin d course. According to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association, "the se and the termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from *east to west*." e adds, "so great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the nt of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements among the nations which inhit its borders, that, even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navie. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation may justly surprise the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, en he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly fered to their acceptance, for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the ple to this sort of provision, that the fish, with which the river abounds, are left in d undisturbed possession of the waters." (Proceedings of the African Association, p. 183-189.) was also generally believed, that the Gambia and Senegal were branches of the Niger. these reports are, however, fully disproved by the late discoveries of Mr. Park, who ached the banks of the Niger, or, as it is called by the natives, the Joliba, at Sego, the tal of Bambarra, where he saw it "flowing *slowly to the eastward*." On the river are numerous canoes; and, proceeding farther, he tells us that he "passed a great many

and Cashna, terminating, as is supposed, in
eastward; and the Nile, which, dividing Eg
charges itself into the Mediterranean, after
its source in Abyssinia. The most considerab
the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western
the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt.
king of Mauritania, a great lover of astrono
the stars from its summit; on which account
bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The me
tending themselves between Abyssinia and
are still higher than those of Atlas. Those
Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigri
tend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled b
tains of God, on account of their being subj
ning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the De
dian, is about two miles high, in the form
tuated on an island of the same name near the
capes or promontories in this country are Ca
the land is always covered with green trees
the most westerly point of the continent
Good Hope, so denominated by the Portugue
round it in 1489, and discovered the passage t
extremity of Africa, in the country of the Ho
rendezvous of ships of every nation who tra
half way from Europe. It is at present in the
who took it from the Dutch in September
strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mand
with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is ext
ing as it were in the centre of the globe, an
nearer communication with Europe, Asia, a
the other quarters has with the rest. That it
have not only the testimony of the Portugue
lish, and the French, who have settlements o
that of the most authentic historians. It is,
of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles
large, deep rivers, it should have no navigati
fit from them; and that it should be inhabite
ple, ignorant of commerce, and of each ot
these rivers are the most excellent harbours,
from the wind, and capable of being made p
cations; but quite destitute of shipping, tra
where there is plenty of merchandize. In sh
quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaust
under proper improvements, of producing so
well as convenient, within itself, seems to be
not only by the natives, who are quite un
benefits which nature has provided for them
civilized Europeans who are settled in it, pa

villages, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who caught gr
long cotton nets, which they make themselves, and use n
are used in Europe." Those who would see more concer
the different opinions and notices of ancient and mod
relative to its rise, course, and termination, may consult t
tion on that subject, in Major Rennell's *Geographical I*
to Mr. *Park's Travels*.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states eminent for the eral arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. e kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much cele- ated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formi- ble rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the en known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, l Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neigh- uring kingdoms and states. After this the natives, constantly plun- red, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, glected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might rve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, ho contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These ere succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahomedan re- igion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they ame, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby ompleted.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be ivided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahomedans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greatest part of the ountry, from the tropic of cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and hese are generally black. The Mahomedans, who are of a tawny omplexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, r the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, who agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

| | Nations. | Length. | Breadth. | Square Miles. | Chief Cities. | Distance and bearing from London. | Diff. of time from London. | Religion |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barbary. | Morocco, Tafilet, &c. | 500 | 480 | 219,400 | Fez | 1080 S. | 0 24 aft. | Mahom. |
| | Algiers | 480 | 100 | 143,600 | Algiers | 920 S. | 0 13 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tunis | 220 | 170 | 54,400 | Tunis | 990 SE. | 0 39 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Tripoli | 700 | 240 | 75,000 | Tripoli | 1280 SE. | 0 56 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Barca | 400 | 300 | 66,400 | Polemeta | 1440 SE. | 1 26 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Egypt | 600 | 250 | 140,700 | Grand Cairo | 1920 SE. | 2 21 bef. | Mahom. |
| | Biledulgerid | 2500 | 350 | 485,000 | Dara | 1565 S. | 0 32 aft. | Pagans |
| | Zaara | 3400 | 660 | 739,200 | Tegessa | 1800 S. | 0 24 aft. | Pagans |
| | Negroland | 2200 | 840 | 1,026,000 | Madinga | 2500 S. | 0 38 aft. | Pagans |
| | Guinea | 1800 | 360 | 510,000 | Benin | 2700 S. | 0 20 bef. | Pagans |
| Up. Ethiopia. | Nubia | 940 | 600 | 264,000 | Nubia | 2418 SE. | 2 12 bef. | M. & Pa. |
| | Abyssinia | 900 | 800 | 378,000 | Gondar | 2880 SE. | 2 30 bef. | Christ. |
| | Abex | 540 | 130 | 160,000 | Doncala | 3580 SE. | 2 36 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but computed at 1,200,000 square miles. | | | | | | | |
| Lower Guinea. | Loango | 410 | 300 | 49,400 | Loango | 3300 S. | 0 44 bef. | Ch. & P. |
| | Congo | 540 | 420 | 172,800 | St. Salvador | 3480 S. | 1 0 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Angola | 360 | 250 | 38,400 | Loando | 3750 S. | 0 58 bef. | Ch. & Pa. |
| | Benguela | 430 | 180 | 64,000 | Benguela | 3900 S. | 0 58 bef. | Pagans |
| | Mataman | 450 | 240 | 144,800 | No Towns | • • • | • • • | Pagans |
| | Ajan | 900 | 300 | 234,000 | Brava | 3702 SE. | 2 40 bef. | Pagans |
| | Zanguebar | 1400 | 350 | 275,000 | Melinda or Mozambiq. | 4440 SE. | 2 38 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monomotapa | 960 | 660 | 222,500 | Monomota | 4500 S. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Monemugi | 900 | 660 | 310,000 | Chicova | 4260 SE. | 1 44 bef. | Pagans |
| | Sosola | 480 | 300 | 97,000 | Sosola | 4600 SE. | 1 18 bef. | Pagans |
| | Terra de Nat | 600 | 350 | 184,000 | No Towns | • • • | • • • | Pagans |
| | Caffraria or Hottentot | 708 | 660 | 200,340 | Cape of Good Hope. | 5200 S. | 1 4 bef. | Mostly Pagans. |

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Oceans; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

| Islands. | Sq. Miles | Towns. | Tr. with or belong to |
|---|---|---|---|
| Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea | - - | Babel-Mandel - - | All Nations |
| Socotra, in the Indian Ocean | 3,600 | Caulausia - - - | Ditto |
| The Comora Isles, ditto | 1,000 | Joanna - - - | Ditto |
| Madagascar, ditto | 168,000 | St. Austin - - - | Ditto |
| Mauritius, ditto | 1,840 | Mauritius - - - | French |
| Bourbon, ditto | 2,100 | Bourbon - - - | Ditto |
| St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean | - - | St. Helena - - | English |
| Ascension, ditto | - - | - - - - | Uninhabited |
| St. Matthew, ditto | - - | - - - - | Ditto |
| St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince Island, Fernandopo. | ditto - | St. Thomas, Anaboa | Portuguese |
| Cape Verd Islands, ditto | 2,000 | St. Domingo - - | Ditto |
| Goree, ditto | - - | Fort St. Michael | French |
| Canaries, ditto | - - | Palma, St. Christopher | Spanish |
| Madeiras, ditto | 1,500 | Santa Cruz, Funchal | Portuguese |
| The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America, | ditto | 2,000 Angra, St. Michael | Ditto |

Having given the reader some idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their supposed dimensions, we shall now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries, as far as they are known to Europeans from the accounts of the latest travellers, beginning, as usual, from the north, with Egypt and the States of Barbary.

# EGYPT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 250 | between | 20 and 32 north latitude.<br>28 and 36 east longitude. | 140,700 |

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, East; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the Desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, West.

| *Divisions.* | *Subdivisions.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|---|
| Northern division contains | Lower Egypt | Grand Cairo, E. long. 32. N. lat. 30.<br>Bulac<br>Alexandria<br>Rosetta, or Rashid<br>Damietta |
| Southern division contains | Upper Eygpt | Sayd, or Thebes<br>Cossire |

AIR.] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by

European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt are by the natives called *poisonous* winds, or the hot *winds of the Desert*. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted, and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter; when it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country), but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt nothing is to be seen in the plains but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but, according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalige, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and, in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and other fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest-months, and they produce three crops; one of the lettuces and of cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

ANIMALS.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is found in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The cameleon, a little animal something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here, as well as in other countries. The crocodile was for-

merly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet, armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewise, great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians, for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects.—They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes, or horned viper, inhabits the greater part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the aspic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or cerastes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where they are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. Mr. Browne, a late traveller, who was in Egypt in 1792, estimates its whole population at two millions and a half. It seems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks.—They are, however, still very numerous; but what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking, slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Copts: in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and, in general, they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mahomedanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented, by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal custom of tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is

tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when she accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Copts are an acute and ingenious people: they are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what has been already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahomedans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and, without any ceremony, intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little. The Copts profess themselves to be Christians of the Greek church, but they embrace transubstantiation; in which, and other points, the catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted, from the Mahomedans, the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religion and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; the Coptic (says Mr. Browne) may be considered as extinct: numerous and minute researches have enabled me to ascertain this fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain some Coptic words.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahomedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The Caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomed, made war, from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar character. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and cul-

without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians, consists in arithmetical calculation for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque, or the Mahomedan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy-pits, so called from their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mœris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

OASES.] At the distance of about a hundred miles or more from the Nile, are small fertile spots of cultivated land, situated like islands in the midst of an ocean of sand: they are called *Oases*, the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks, and by the Arabs *Elwah*. Those with which we are now acquainted are in number three; the Great Oasis, in lat. 26 deg. 30 min. N.; the Lesser Oasis, about forty miles to the north of the former; and the Oasis of Siwa, in lat. 29 deg. 12 min. N. lon. 44 deg. 54 min. East. The Great Oasis is said to be twenty-

five leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwa was visited by Mr. Browne: it is about six miles long, and four and a half or five wide. A large proportion of this space is filled with date-trees; but there are also pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plantains, and the gardens are remarkably flourishing. A considerable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been supposed to be the Oasis where the famous temple of Ammon anciently stood; but though Mr. Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Isis and Anubis were conspicuous among the sculptures, he discovered nothing which could induce him to believe this to be the real Oasis of Ammon.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. Even a slight review of these would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, Kahira, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It cannot, according to Mr. Browne, be estimated to contain less than 300,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin: at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in Old Cairo; but captain Norden suspects it is a Saracen work,

or does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cossire, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers who visit those places, is to hire a janissary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of manufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal-ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahomedan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the pasha, and the republican by the mamalukes or sangiacks. The pasha is appointed by the grand-signor, as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik-bellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power: the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand-signor's pasha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the mamalukes.

REVENUES.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consists in the mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages, to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8000 men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II. king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures, the pyramids, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquest of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomed, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy; and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; which translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Nouredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt for some time flourished under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages on the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be very difficult to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia by the name of Gypsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahomedan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the grand-signor, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and

at part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He arched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and ria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of overnment, and the introducing of order into a country that had been ng the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and ingnities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He so wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assrances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with e utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to ake himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all ations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once ore the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey owed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the rbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He umed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was bly supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who armly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashaws, whom e repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingom of Egypt by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-w, Mahomed Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the h of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken priner; and, dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand iro. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik Bellet, and arched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with eat cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher cepted the Porte's full amnesty; and, trusting to their assurances, braced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when e captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, d his head cut off, in the 85th year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali and other ys or princes who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal were Mud and Ibrahim, who, having driven their enemies into banishment, gan to quarrel among themselves; till, at length, after having alterely expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromise in March 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invasion of gypt by the French, of which some account has already been given in ur summary of the affairs of France. The French made themselves sters of Cairo and the whole of the Delta, forcing Murad Bey and the malukes to take refuge in Upper Egypt; but, after the departure of onaparte, general Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, conded a treaty with the grand vizier, who had been sent against him th a powerful army; by which the French troops were to be pertted to evacuate Egypt without molestation. But the British governnt having, at the same time, sent orders to the English admirals in the editerranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, general leber, having received notice of these orders, immediately attacked e Turks, and defeated them with great slaughter. Negotiations, it aid, however, have been since recommenced for the departure of the

French from Egypt; but of the issue of these no certain account have yet been received.

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## THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberies; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; but is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there, was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their governments, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on the plains; and, by the report of the Europeans who have lived there some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of

life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahomedan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros is to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across the continent. The camel is, therefore (says Mr. Bruce), emphatically called the *Ship of the Desert*. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place, to lay in a store, with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw (speaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot of foreign negroes in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahomedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as

the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisians are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilised of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handsome in their persons; and though the men are sunt-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the same with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisians, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and, having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

DRESS.] The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief

rniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which ey sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is disgusting. They prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swal- w by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of these states are Mahomedans; but any subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ctarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the Caliphs. All of m have much respect for idiots; and, in some cases, their protection reens offenders from punishment for the most notorious crimes. The loors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscu- sly called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Maurita- a, the country of the Moors), have in general adopted the very worst arts of the Mahomedan religion, and seem to have retained only as uch of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is unished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality f wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with mpunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their re- gion.

LANGUAGE.] As the states of Barbary possess those countries that ormerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient frican language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and en by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port owns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; nd seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead nguages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known, in all the orts of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } This article is well worth the study of an antiquary, but the bjects of it are difficult of access. The reader can scarcely doubt that he countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœni- ian, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious re- ains of antiquity: but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous habitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian great- ss are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of eir ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old ilia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remain- g, particularly at Manuba, a country-house of the Bey, four miles om Tunis; but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, mous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned ties of antiquity; and so over-run is the country with barbarism, that eir very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and her public buildings, which remain still in tolerable preservation. sides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the st stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; ese were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its esent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifica- ns in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or natural curiosities belonging to this country, excepting its salt-pits, hich in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions rings found here, that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton ry tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almost in ruins, the

court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts, the common people live in a very slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. The public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. The Spaniards, however, attacked it in 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships, of different rates, and 346 transports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys; but, after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or destruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. Tunis, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon the coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catherine, consort to Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstandings between the king and his parliament occasioned him to demolish its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing-town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses; but it

abitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their man-
s.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; r do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a ert country, thinly peopled, and almost destitute both of water and ovisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states ow very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their ports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ord-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of rkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among m, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the gher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships, that, proper-speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English rry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those ready mentioned, consist in elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, , wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum bic and sandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and me inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and lds.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, rtillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in heir public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in he ports of Morocco are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these tates, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the vil-ny of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom ke all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom pu-ished.

It has been often thought surprising, that the Christian powers should uffer their marine to be insulted by these barbarians, who take the ships f all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay em a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account r this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach ith them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord para-ount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Al-iers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, at nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as he inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into the deserts and nountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest must be te-ious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been ndertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccess-l, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government can-ot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, dges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal natters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every mi-itary officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is sel-om that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges,

however, of the caliphate government still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand-signor to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance, as the chief representative of Mahomed. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand-signor, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy in the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the Grand-signor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills the place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] Those of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahomedan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negro-land and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000*l.* a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. } By the best accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring into the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry

ounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to orocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but at king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 27, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, ich lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. e Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks and coglies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board ir vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. esides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but, s they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops re under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary tates maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few ears ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who ems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited is very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive comerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the rth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely y merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what llee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though creased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and mall, and some years ago did not exceed six ships, from thirty-six to rty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other ptains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. ith such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the naons of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of esents.

HISTORY.] Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed e fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh ntury that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the andals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad onquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, rom whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, hen the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the paniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance e two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish et, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and unis, but they were unsuccessful; and, as observed, the inhabitants ave in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been in geral a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some e princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don astian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual ate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes er since: nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

# ABYSSINIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length [illegible] | between | 6 and 20 North latitude | 378,000 |
| Breadth [illegible] | | 26 and 44 East longitude | |

[illegible] It is bounded on the North by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the East partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Dancala; on the West, by Gorham; and on the South, by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1. Masaab; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. [illegible]; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maisha; 10. Dembea; 11. [illegible]; 12. Nara.

[illegible] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without intervals, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months' rain, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

[illegible] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohar, sassa, feeho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jaccal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or saadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebris; these are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia, in every situation, both in the city and the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark to the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcasses which this cruel and uncleanly people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies in the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to

;age, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of eriority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for n's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted man blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to ne highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks: and in is he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

Birds.] The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other anils beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored ith them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of e eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, ver-stock all parts of the country. That species of glede called hadaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the eturn of the sun, after the tropical rains. The nissar, or golden eagle, not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that ies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, chamah, erkoom, moroc, sheregrig, and waalia, are particularly deribed by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we er the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia; but those are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, Goose of the Nile, or Goose of the Cape, common in all the South of Africa: these build their nests upon trees, and, when not in water, generally sit upon them.

Insects.] From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the tsaltsalya, or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider its small size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant. Yet passing from these to his history, and to the account of his powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do him from want of consideration. We are obliged, with the greatest surprise, to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the same woods, are still vastly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, his very sound, though he is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement, and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains last, this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with h

[illegible] He must lose no time in removing to the sands of [illegible] by this fly, his body, head, and legs [illegible] which swell, break, and putrefy, to the cer- [illegible]

[illegible] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well [illegible] to have been early brought thither from [illegible] in Abyssinia. *Balessar*, *Balæ*, or *Balsam*, is [illegible] The great value set upon this drug in the [illegible] We know from Scripture, the oldest [illegible] infallible, that the Ishmaelites, or [illegible] trafficking with the Indian commodities [illegible] as a part of the cargo. The *Enset* [illegible] grows and comes to great perfection at [illegible] part of Maitsha and Goutto west [illegible] plantations of it, and is there almost [illegible] the food of the Galla inhabiting that [illegible] well boiled, if eaten with milk or [illegible] nourishing, and easily digest- [illegible] all over Abyssinia, where it [illegible] ground; from it is made the [illegible] this country. The Abys- [illegible] some of it of an excellent qua- [illegible] as any in the world, both [illegible] bread is chiefly confined to [illegible] is very common in Abyssinia. [illegible] the vegetable world.

[illegible] mention those of Gooderoo, and [illegible] of water known in this [illegible] exaggerated. Its greatest [illegible] length is forty-nine. The [illegible] the end of it. In the dry [illegible] shrinks greatly in size; but [illegible] on every side of it, and fall [illegible] it then swells, and extends [illegible] course a much larger surface. [illegible] in the lake. All these islands [illegible] great people, or for a voluntary [illegible] misfortune, or as places of [illegible] during troublesome times.

[illegible] those of inferior note, we [illegible] of the great cataract of Alata, [illegible] Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The [illegible] missionaries say the fall is [illegible] is, indeed, very difficult; [illegible] of different lengths, at dis- [illegible] water's edge. Mr. Bruce thinks he [illegible] feet than any other measure [illegible] by rains, and fell in one [illegible] above half an English mile in [illegible] terrible, and which [illegible] A thick fume or hate [illegible] over the course of the stream, both [illegible] though the water is not seen. The [illegible] its natural clearness, and [illegible] pool, or bason, in the solid rock,

h was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the ipice; the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with t fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, ng a wave, or violent ebullition, by chafing against each other.

URCES OF THE NILE.] The Agows of Damot pay divine honours c Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been d, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at the sources. village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not ght of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the om of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, t three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently ded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of ve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the r, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, ght from the sides, and constantly kept in repair; and this is the upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the le of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by nd of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and vater in it is perfectly clear and limpid, but has no ebullition or on of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth or open- of the source is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diame- and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The g is about six feet six inches deep.

n feet distant from the first of these springs, is the sacred fountain, t eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches . And about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, outh being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet t inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, he found xact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile to be 1c° 59′ 25″, gh the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N. by a random guess. The itude he ascertained to be 36 55′ 30″ East of the meridian of enwich*.

AUSES OF THE INUNDATIONS OF THE NILE.] The sun being ly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there mes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery icles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the ian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of va- rs as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and ing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of uary, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the osphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the ith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for se- al months before. Advancing to the line with increasing velocity, describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at dar the 1st of March, being then distant 5° from the zenith; these greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil; and this seems to be the

* There is another branch of the Nile, called the *Bahr el ablad*, or White River; the es of which, according to Mr. Browne, lie about ten days journey south of the ry of Dar-Fur. The place is called Donga, and is the residence of a chief or king idolatrous nation. The country there is very mountainous, and in the spot where ter rises are said to be forty distinct hills: these are called Kumri. From them at number of springs issue, which, uniting into one great channel, form the Bahr id. The people are quite naked, black, and idolaters. The place is said to be twenty removed from the confines of Bornou. All the road thither is mountainous. It lies out 7 deg. north lat. and 25 deg. east long.

farthest extent of the sun's influence capable of causing rain, which only falls in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon its arrival at the zenith of the place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, are first coloured, and then, beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its banks, inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which has become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun is now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are all full; and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern part of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers, which escape in the direction either east or west, as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the east into the Indian Ocean.

Cities and Towns.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly flat, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropic of rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, forming a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest stories of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can walk along the whole, and look into the street. There appear to have never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the wall are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars made by day and night, in the course of three years, with an astronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent telescopes, and by a mean of all their small differences, is N. lat. 12° 34′ 30″: and by many observations of the satellites of Jupiter, especially the first, both in their immersions and emer-

ng that period, its longitude was found to be 37° 33′ 0″ east from meridian of Greenwich.

)IXAN is the first town in Abyssinia on the side of Taranta. Dixan uilt on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep ey surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spi- up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as ost frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries rt thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extra- inary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they e stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan as to a sure deposit; and the Moors ive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, nce they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the pro- e of Tigré, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly con- ed in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57′ 55″ north, and g. 40° 7′ 30″ east of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, sist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to e been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of ch have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of nite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a *patera*, ex- lingly well carved, in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small am, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley re stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magni- nt bason, 150 feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to er the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting negranates, neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this n is 14° 6′ 36″ north.

MASUAH. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an nd bearing the same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, in general built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; besides these, there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which two stories each. N. lat. 15° 35′ 5″ E. long. 39° 36′ 30″.

[TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a considerable deal of trade car- l on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and ust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and articles where a small capital is invested. Property here is too pre- ious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of ver enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessaries ife, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such cles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources he Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in gth, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in suc- ion, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these com- lities to the capital.

t may naturally occur, that in a long carriage, such as that of a dred miles, in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of on, consequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in shape rly resembling a carrot; this they bruise and mix with their butter, a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

[RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the Annals of Abyssinia, t in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaism,

and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is true, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark; it follows, that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country; we shall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the *Travels* of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

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# INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA;

## FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA, TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA, DAR-FUR, &c.

IT having been long a subject of complaint, that Europeans knew very little, if any thing, of the *interior districts* of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. *Lord Rawdon, the Bishop of Llandaff, Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart*, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and, appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas*.

Such a person as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object of contemplation: and, were we unacquainted with the sequel, we should congratulate the Society on being so fortunate as to find such a man to

their missionaries: but the reader will soon be acquainted with
lancholy circumstance to which we allude.
om two such geographical missionaries (observes a very respect-
erary journalist*) much information was no doubt expected; and
the views of the society were not yet fully answered, the com-
ions which it has received are of a nature which will excite,
ıot fully gratify, the curiosity of geographers.
. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and peril-
of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to
r, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold
: he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the
\ugust.
e he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifest
ve been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared;
'as the information which he collected here from the travelling
hants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of
at he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the com-
ıat his next communication would be from Sennaar (600
: south of Cairo): but death, attributed to various causes,
n at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed
hich were entertained of his projected journey.
ed with a soul for discovery, and formed by nature for
s of hardihood and peril, the death of Mr. Ledyard must
d as a public misfortune.
mixture of regret and disappointment, we turn from poor
notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the
of the volume published by the association. He em-
Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed
ert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit
ipoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the
r, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the
d to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.
ns to undertake great enterprises are more easily given
So Mr. Lucas found; and so the reader, to his disap-
ll find likewise. Only a part of the plan was this geo-
onary able to carry into execution. He sets out, indeed,
ndsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the bashaw's
ompany with shereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; re-
suppose, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia:
ations, which began Feb. 1, 1798, terminated at Me-
.
f visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Af-
solicits the information of his fellow travellers, and
society the result of his conferences. A memoir com-
, from the reports of a shereef Imhammed, will not
atisfactory; and yet it certainly merits consideration,
rroborated by other testimonies.'
r sources of information, however, we must, for the
urselves with these communications. From the vari-
Mr. Lucas with the shereef Imhammed, the follow-
mposed:
ıe kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain,

* Monthly Review, new Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant, south from Mesurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and pasturage are the principal occupations of the Fezzanners; they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-dust; their houses, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a sufficient protection. Their dress resembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of summer, which are intense, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the sun. To these, many particulars are added of their persons, diseases, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their sovereign, who is a tributary of the bashaw of Tripoli, administers impartial justice.

'The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of 150 miles, is a sandy desert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of senna.

'This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, or Kassina, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger's course. Cashna, or Kassina, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day's journey of the river *Wed-el-Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle*. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word signifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark). Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which in form and height resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression, *a countless multitude*. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

rnment, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of electing a new king from among the children of the deceased so-gn: but the account of the pres nt sultan, his wives, and his en (p. 227), is too curious not to be exhibited.

he present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostenta- plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the n blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which ie usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnifi- f his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be 500 ber, and he himself is described as the reputed father of 350 n, of whom 300 are males; a disproportion which naturally sug- e idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candi- the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male of a stranger.

are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of are not possessed by them.

h-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; nd this kingdom are said to be several tribes of negroes, idola- feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually in- the Begarmese; and when they have taken as many prisoners urpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to . It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, g off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

re not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the ho are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is ole; and that they should be driven along with the mangled eir associates, utterly exceeds belief.

npire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou. perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fer- ufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be per- onder at their having remained altogether unknown to Eu- We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the ts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo , and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince; y are divided into regular and civilized states, may be a *4 thousand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty guages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the mmed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. ould be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor tempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that waters, but little accords with the history of their com- f their progress in manufactures.'

patronage of the same society for making discoveries in ountries of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park has since performed tward, from the mouth of the Gambia to Silla, on the above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the or Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important g the geography of Western Africa, both moral and physi- been collected by any former traveller.

et out from Pisania (a British factory on the banks of the ie 2d of December 1795, and took his route through f Woolli, Bondou, Kajaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Lu-

damar, to Bambarra. The country of Woolli, he tells us, every where rises into gentle acclivities, which are generally covered with extensive woods, and the towns are situated in the intermediate valleys; the chief productions are cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn. Medina, the capital of this kingdom, is a place of considerable extent, and may contain from eight hundred to a thousand houses. The country of Bondou, like that of Woolli, is very generally covered with woods; but native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not surpassed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fatteconda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general a tawny complexion, with small features, and soft silky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle disposition; but they evidently consider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and when talking of different nations, always rank themselves among the white people. In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements towards the coast; the face of the country is every where interspersed with a pleasing variety of hills and valleys; and the windings of the Senegal river, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawoollies, or, as the French write it, Seracolets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a despotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people. In the kingdom of Kasson, of which Kooniakarry is the capital, from the top of a high hill, Mr. Park had an enchanting prospect of the country. The number of the towns and villages and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. A gross calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson can raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum. At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr. Park had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson; telling him it was not in his power at present to afford him much assistance, for that all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for some time past, in consequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, resolved to continue his journey, and proceeded to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, where he sent presents to Ali, the sovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requesting permission to pass through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's slaves arrived with instructions, as he pretended, to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but, before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali at Benowm, who detained him a prisoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his escape, he tells us, it is impossible to describe; but he soon found that his real situation was distressful in the extreme. He was in the midst of a barren wilderness; and, after travelling a long time, exposed to the burning heat of the sun, reflected with double violence from the sand, his suffering from thirst became so intolerable, that he fainted on the sand, and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length resumed its functions; and, on recovering his senses, he found the sun just sinking behind the trees, and the evening become somewhat cool. It soon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirst by wringing and sucking his clothes,

h he was sufficiently relieved to enable him to pursue his journey; after travelling several days more, he at length came in sight of of the principal objects pointed out for his research,—the river r. "I saw," says he, "with infinite pleasure, the great object of ission—the long-sought-for majestic Niger, glittering to the morn- un, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly *to astward*. I hastened to the brink, and, having drunk of the r, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all gs, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success."

e had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which he thus ibes:—"Sego, properly speaking, consists of four distinct towns; on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They ll surrounded with high mud walls: the houses are built of clay, square-form, with flat roofs; some of them have two stories, and of them are white-washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish ques are seen in every quarter; and the streets, though narrow, are d enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel- ages are entirely unknown. From the best inquiries I could make, ve reason to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about thirty sand inhabitants. The view of this extensive city, the numerous s upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state ne surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civiliza- and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of ca.—Sego is situate, as nearly as can be ascertained, in north lat. eg. 10 min.: west long. 2 deg. 26 min."

rom Sego, Mr. Park continued his journey along the banks of the r to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the east of Sego; here, the tropical rains being set in, his finances expended, and ous other difficulties concurring to render his farther progress ex- ely dangerous, if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to astward "at a point (says major Rennell) somewhat more than en degrees east of Cape Verd, and precisely in the same parallel. line of distance arising from this difference of longitude is about geographical miles, or 1090 British, within the western extremity frica; a point which, although short by 200 miles of the desired n Tombuctoo, the attainment of which would unquestionably have attended with great *eclat*, was yet far beyond what any other pean, whose travels have been communicated to the European d, had ever reached."

r. Park gives the following account of Tombuctoo and Houssa, the information he was able to collect concerning those cities at , and in the course of his journey:

To the north-east of Masina (a kingdom on the northern bank of the r, at a short distance from Silla) is situated the kingdom of Tom- o, the great object of European research; the capital of this king- eing one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which Moors carry on with the Negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth is pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this sive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts; the king himself ll the chief officers of state are Moors; and they are said to be severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the rish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable egro, that when he first visited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging ort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him into ut, spread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying: 'If you

are a Mussulman, you are my friend; sit down; but if you are a Kafr (infidel), you are my slave, and with this rope I will lead you to market. The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk, and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour. The whole expence of his government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandize, which is collected at the gates of the city.

"The city of Houssa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo) is another great mart for Moorish commerce. I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city; and they agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but, in Houssa, the Negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government."

Mr. Park was likewise told by a shereef who resided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Sego, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo, "that Houssa was the largest town he had ever seen: that Walet was larger than Tombuctoo; but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it was not so much resorted to by strangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days journey, but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers supported themselves by purchasing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering-places: two of the days' journey was over a sandy country without water. From Walet to Tombuctoo was eleven days more: but water was more plentiful, and the journey was usually performed upon bullocks. He said there were many Jews at Tombuctoo; but they never spoke Arabic, and used the same prayers as the Moors."

The city of Tombuctoo is placed by major Rennell, from a comparison of all the accounts received of it, in north latitude 16° 30'; east longitude 1° 33'.

We shall here add a short account of the country of Dar-Fûr, another kingdom of the interior of Africa lately visited by Mr. Browne. "Dar-Fûr, or the country of Fûr, is situated to the south of Egypt and Nubia, and to the west of Abyssinia. Cobbé, its capital, stands, according to Mr. Browne, in north latitude 14° 11', east longitude 28° 8'. In Dar-Fûr wood is found in great quantity, except where the rocky nature of the soil absolutely impedes vegetation; nor are the natives assiduous completely to clear the ground, even where it is designed for the cultivation of grain. The perennial rains, which fall here from the middle of June till the middle of September in greater or less quantity, but generally too frequent and violent, suddenly invest the face of the country, till then dry and sterile, with a delightful verdure. The tame animals in Dar-Fûr are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred; it is even said that two thousand are sometimes found together. The antelope and ostrich are also extremely common. The population of the country Mr. Browne estimates at 200,000 souls: Cobbe, the capital, he thinks does not contain more than 6000 inhabitants. The town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houses, each of which occupies within its inclosure a large portion of ground, are divided by considerable waste. The walls of the houses are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, a

them white, red, and black. The disposition of the people of ûr is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is prac- y the men as well as the women, and they often dance promis- . But the vices of thieving, lyeing, and cheating in bargains, are nost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is of the sight of the owner. Their religion is the Mahomedan, but ow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to . To the women are assigned the most laborious employments: l the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even e houses. The government is despotic; though the monarch othing contrary to the koran. He speaks of the soil and pro- as his personal property, and of the people as his slaves. His arise from the tenth of all merchandize imported; the tribute rabs who breed oxen, horses, camels, and sheep; and some ties: the sultan is besides the chief merchant in the country, tches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own lize. The name of the present sultan is Abd-el-rachman. When me was in the country, he was admitted to a great public given by the sultan. He found him seated on his throne, fty canopy, attended by his guards. The space in front was suitors and spectators to the number of more than fifteen A kind of hired encomiast stood on the monarch's left hand, t, with all his strength, during the whole ceremony—"See e, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant r strength, the powerful sultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-rashid! prolong thy life!—O Master! May God assist thee and victorious!"—Abd-el-rachman usurped the throne from his hom he conquered in battle, in the year 1787."

## RN AND EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

Western Coast of Africa, proceeding southwards from the orocco, we pass the country of Zahara, inhabited by Moorish bes, called the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, and ho extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal, where ad a fort and factory, and were entire masters of the gum- called Fort Louis, was taken by the English in 1758, d to them by the peace of 1763; but in 1783 it was re- nce. Near Cape Verd is the island of Goree, considered safest, pleasantest, and most important settlements in all was subject to France, but has been lately taken by the the southward of Cape Verd, in latitude 8 deg. 12 min. out 12 deg. long. west, is the settlement of Sierra Leone, he purest motives of humanity, under the patronage of a le society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. t purposes for which it was intended are, to introduce nowledge and the comforts of civilization into Africa, and perpetuate the most confidential union between the ny and the natives of that country.

t of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, ast, to the eastward of the island of Bisgos. But this is now

entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The surviving colonists took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone.

In the latter end of September 1794, a French squadron attacked this settlement, carried off or destroyed all the stores and whatever they could find belonging to the company, and burned all the public buildings and houses of the Europeans, and several likewise (as they said, by mistake) of those of the negro colonists. The colony, however, has not been abandoned, but the directors have taken such measures as have repaired their losses, and will no doubt tend still more to increase the trade and cultivation of the settlement. The colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives, and make great progress in clearing and improving the lands allotted them.

The country or coast of Guinea (or Upper Guinea) extends from 12 deg. west long. to 8 deg. east, nearly in the parallel of 6 deg. north lat. It comprehends the grain coast, the tooth coast, the gold coast, the slave coast, (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now subject to Dahomy, and Benin. The principal kingdom on these coasts is Dahomy, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah between the years 1724 and 1727. The country of Dahomy, as known at present, (according to the history of it by Mr. Dalzel, governor of Cape Coast Castle,) is supposed to reach from the sea-coast about 150 or 200 miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that distance; the capital, Abomey, lies in about 8 deg. north lat. and 3 deg. 20 min. east long. The soil is a deep rich clay of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. In some places it is a little light and gravelly; but there is not a stone so big as an egg in the whole country, so far as it has been visited by the Europeans. It plentifully produces, according to the quantity of culture, maize and millet, or Guinea corn of different sorts, a kind of beans, or rather kidney-beans, called callavances, and also a species of beans called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewise cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioka: the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, lime, guavas, and other tropical fruits also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, together with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly pintadas, or Guinea hens, and Muscovy ducks. The elephant, though its flesh be coarse, is made use of as food by the natives; and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men in Dahomy consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the the size of a common counterpane for the middling class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the other hanging down and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet of sixteen or eighteen yards makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, often wears a gold and silver-

feather. The arms and upper part of the body are usually
he feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permit-
ndals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a
er of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths
hiefs; some to wrap round the loins, and others to cover
the breasts and upper part of the body. They adorn the
nd ancles with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver
ls on their fingers; girls, before the age of puberty, wear
a string of beads or shells round their loins, and young
y expose the breasts to view. The general character of
is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The
s in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they possess
African nations with whom we have hitherto had any in-
s being the country where strangers are least exposed to in-
ere it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity. The
iat which the Portuguese call *Lingua Geral*, or General
s spoken not only in Dahomy Proper, but in Whidah and
ndent states; and likewise in Mahee, and several neigh-
. With respect to the Dahoman religion, it consists of a
rstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey
y idea. The government is, perhaps, the most perfect
he earth; the policy of the country admits of no inter-
of subordination between king and slave, at least in the
, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself
bject submission as the meanest subject. A minister of
ntrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his
es, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays
his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the
ng expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives
mands, or communicates any particular business, still
trate; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor,
esence, except the women, and even they must kiss the
ey receive or deliver the king's message. The king of
ains a considerable standing army, commanded by an
al, with several other subordinate military officers, who
nselves in readiness to take the field upon all occasions,
of the sovereign. The payment of these troops chiefly
success of the expeditions in which they are engaged.
y occasions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to
neral's standard; every caboceer, or grandee, marching at
wn people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head
d, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women.
ls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are immured
hree thousand women, several hundreds of whom are
under a female general and subordinate officers appoint-
in the same manner as those under the agaow. These
ularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as
as the male soldiers. They have their large umbrellas,
drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments.
of this institution never fails to attract particularly the
opeans, when among other uncommon exhibitions they
th the unusual spectacle of a review of female troops.
ntry to the east of Dahomy, and extending from about
tude to 1 deg. south. The climate is said to be extremely
noxious. The animals are elephants, tigers, leopards,

apes, and ostriches, and in the rivers are a great number of crocodiles. The dress of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear white calico or cotton petticoats, but the upper part of the body is commonly naked. The women use great art in dressing their hair, which they adjust in a variety of forms. Polygamy is common, and the king is said to have six hundred wives. Though jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans, as they think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man. Their religion is paganism. The king exercises an absolute authority: three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, continually attend upon him to consult, instruct, and decide in his name. He can bring into the field an army of 100,000 men. Benin, the capital, situated on the river Benin or Formosa, was formerly a very closely built and populous city. In the streets, which are long and broad, are many shops filled with European merchandize, as well as with the commodities of the country. A principal part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which is of vast extent, but neither elegant nor commodious.

To the south of Benin is the country of Loango, which is about 150 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The climate of this kingdom is nearly as hot as any under the torrid zone, and much hotter than those of Congo and Angola. Loango was formerly subject to, and made a part of the kingdom of Congo.

Congo (or Lower Guinea) is the name frequently given to the whole tract of country on the coast from the equator to 18 degrees of south latitude, including the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; but Congo Proper is only 150 miles broad along the coast, though it extends it is said 370 inland. It is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by an unknown country, the name of which is said to be Metamba. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The animals it produces are elephants of a monstrous size, lions, leopards, tigers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a vast variety of serpents, some of them of a monstrous length and thickness; rattle-snakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile; the most pernicious and dangerous of which is the ant, or pismire, which will not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround even beasts and men in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones. The character, manners, religion, and government of the natives of Congo, nearly resemble those of the negro kingdoms on this coast. The Portuguese have several settlements in this country.

To the south of Congo is the country of Angola, which is said to be divided among a number of petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements on the coast; but the English and Dutch traffic with the natives, and purchase a great number of slaves.

Between Angola and the country of the Hottentots are the countries of Benguela and Mataman; but these are very little known to Europeans, and the latter is almost entirely desert.

On the Eastern coast of Africa, proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good Hope, we find the country of Sofala, where the Portuguese have a settlement of great importance for their trade to the East-Indies, which is protected by a fort built on a small island near the mouth of a river. The natives of Sofala are for the most part black, with short curled hair, there being but very few tawny or brown among

hose on the coast speak the Arabic language, for they are not
al natives, but descendants of Arabs who settled on this coast.
cording to the report of the Portuguese settlers, contains some
s of considerable value.

northward of Sofala is Monomotapa, a country lying between
nd 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate,
il fertile in rice and sugar-canes, which last grow without
ı. There are here vast herds of elephants, and great numbers
s. This country possesses mines of gold and silver. The in-
ıre negroes. Like most of the other nations of Africa, they
unlimited polygamy; and the king is said to have above a
ives, most of them the daughters of petty chiefs. The army
consists only of foot, for there are no horses in the country.
guese had a settlement here in 1560, but they were all mur-
rced away.

Monomotapa, still proceeding northward, stretches the ex-
ıntry of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mosam-
linda, and several others. Mosambique consists of three
the west side of a channel of the same name. The princi-
is not more than three miles in length, and half as much in
about two miles from the continent. It was seized by the
in 1497, and they have kept possession of it ever since.—
of this island, named likewise Mosambique, is large and
d, having a strong citadel to defend the harbour. The Por-
erally keep a strong garrison here; and trade with the natives
ephants' teeth, and slaves. They have built several churches
eries, and a large hospital for sick sailors. Their ships al-
ere in going to the East Indies, and the harbour is so com-
ıt whole fleets may anchor and provide themselves with all

Mosambique is situated in lat. 15 deg. 5 min. south. lon.
min. east.

gdom of Melinda produces gold, elephants' teeth, ostrich
x, aloes, senna, and other drugs; also plenty of rice, sugar,
and other tropical fruits. The natives are some of them
some tawny: the women are mostly of an olive complexion.
among the higher classes, is remarkably elegant; for they
r abroad but in fine silks, girt with rich gold or silver gir-
and bracelets of the same, or something more valuable,
eads covered with veils. The men wear a kind of turban;
pects their dress consists of a piece of cotton wrapped about
and descending a little below the knees; their legs, feet,
of the body are quite bare. The meaner sort, and those
ther from the coast, wear little else than a piece of cloth
iddie, if we except their shield and weapons, which are
l arrows, the cimeter and javelin. Their government is
; and in such veneration is the king held by his subjects,
er he stirs out from his palace, he is carried in a sedan on
; of four or more of the greatest nobles of the kingdom;
and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes
streets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who sing
praise, accompanied by various kinds of musical instru-
population of the kingdom is estimated at about 200,000
ith respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some
, and some Christians, converted by the Portuguese,
apital (likewise named Melinda) seventeen churches,

convents, and warehouses well provided with European goods. The city is surrounded by fine gardens, and has a good harbour defended by a fort; but the entrance is dangerous, on account of the great number of shoals and rocks under water.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between lat. 2. deg. and 12 deg. north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Gardafui, and contains several states or kingdoms; the principal of which are Adel or Zeila, and Magadoxo, the inhabitants of both which are Mahomedans. All the eastern coast of Ajan is said to be sandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyssinia, and sell the prisoners which they take: they trade likewise in ivory, gold, and horses of an excellent breed.

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## COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

THE country of the Hottentots is a large region in the Southern extremity of Africa, extending North by West from the Cape of Good Hope, beyond the mouth of Orange-river, and from that Cape in an East North East direction to the mouth of the Great Fish-river.

"During the thirty-six hours which I spent (says Monsieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying, *Tabe!* I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not used by the Hottentots properly so called.

"This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation; their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me that these *hordes* of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves' instead of sheeps' skins; they are both called *kross*. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep bone; and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

"When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty; the women, much fonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *kross* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than those of the Hottentots. During the great heats they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

"Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculation respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the

ıe ocean from the Canary isles to the environs of the Cape of
ɔe. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard
ıjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in
n by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe
ced these negroes, by the most villanous attractions, to give
risoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As
; increased, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings:
has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature,
nplice, has rendered her prolific.
disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in
r parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and
it certain distances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are
ous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce
:tle. After finding one horde, one must travel a great way
ther. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands,
ness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky
ferocious animals; and, besides these, the humour of the
, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—are all
propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted
on.
ıuntry of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not
ıntain three thousand people in an extent of thirty or forty
These people did not resemble those degenerated and misera-
ots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contempti-
ised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin
ty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty,
peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to
are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of
who are always sold to government. I had here (continues
) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, va-
g but independence, and never obeying any impulse foreign

uts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies,
r nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep-
nore commonly with mats. They had only one opening,
and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the
ed their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels
and which had no other vent but the door, added to the
they always retain, would have stifled any European who
had the courage to remain in them two minutes: custom,
ders all this supportable to these savages.
› colours for which they shew the greatest fondness are red
The first is composed of a kind of ochrey earth, which is
ral places of the country, and which they mix and dilute
this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles,
wder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the char-
wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with paint-
prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over
ody, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of
nd this part of their dress requires no small length of time.
lours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always
the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable
an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our
ences no less insupportable; but the *boughou* has over c
tes the advantage of not being pernicious to the sl

to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemetries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them, and carry them away in morsels. The children, and, failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van; and when victory declares itself, they do not bestow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

"Of all the people whom I ever saw (observes our author), the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

"It is necessary in this narration to take notice of that disgusting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in history. It is still fashionable among a certain horde. I say it is fashionable (observes our author); for, instead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be considered as one of the most monstrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain small corner of the world. This singularity is nothing else but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occasioned by weights suspended from them. They may hang down about nine inches, more or less, according to the age of the person, or the assiduous care which is bestowed on this singular decoration.

"A physiognomist, or, if the reader pleases, a modern wit, would entertain his company, by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the ouran-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at

levation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often ight the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnish- ill teeth well enamelled and perfectly white; his eyes, very l open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the d to the sight and touch his hair has the resemblance of wool; rt, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He e hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him uble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the low the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys ling fierceness usual among savages. The women, with of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, eautiful form while in the bloom of youth; and their hands d their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, pass- e throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness

tots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolness, and oks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the d without any restraint.

ndifference to the affairs of life, inclines them very much l indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of sistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. ow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and unger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under r the future, they are struck only with the present; and lone engages their attention.

vever (observes M. Vaillant), the best, the kindest, and able of people. Whoever travels among them may be g food and lodging; and though they will receive pre- ever ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long jour- h, and if they learn from the information he requires, hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which ait supply him with provisions as far as their circum- r, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing reaching the place of his destination. Such are these t such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a

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# CAFFRARIA.

nown by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a region, bounded on the north by Negroland and west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the

south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

We shall give a more particular description of the people from two modern writers; the first celebrated for his botanical knowledge; the other for his taste in natural history; but more especially for his very entertaining and interesting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, says lieutenant Paterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that, if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to the country; such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please, and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains except in the summer season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water which are found in the woods. From what I observed in this country, I am induced to believe that it is greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arboreous plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies: but they were so shy, that I was able only to preserve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by those I had seen, says M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting the

; the bottom, nor do the cheek-bones of these people project in the
th manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces
ick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Mosambique, but a
ormed contour, an agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and ex-
e: so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour,
re many women among them who might be thought handsome
side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by
; their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tat-
articularly about the face.

hair of the Caffrees, which is strong and curling, is never greased,
y anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making them-
tive and strong. The men are more particular in decorations
women, being very fond of beads and brass rings. They are
een without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks
phant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then po-
round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to
m big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise
to the motion of the arm: sometimes they place small rings
ns of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and
rnament; a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.
kewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they
whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content them-
the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm
Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is
ake use of krosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which
: feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does
ewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments.
y are well made, and pretty, when compared to other se-
never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not
g copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gona-
rdered with small rows of beads; which is the only vanity

hat the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree
; as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which
hey have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox
l of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that
ır it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs.
er or season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women
ids. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caf-
with a feather stuck in the hair; but this sight is by no
n.

the daily occupation of the women is making earthern-
ney fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they like-
rious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to con-
they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth,
ing it, with wooden pick-axes.

he Caffrees are higher and more commodious than those
ts: they form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of
ery strong and compact, covered both within and with-
re of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or
low, that to enter the dwelling you must crawl on your
; which makes it easier to defend themselves against
udden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place,
surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practise agriculture; which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots;—a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some are taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their religion to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; they do not use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished: but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed: these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither larger nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffrees for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small town sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different *hordes* makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance, or assagay; which shews his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as he

age, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neigh-
ng his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but
war he carries a shield, of about three feet in height, made
est part of the hide of a buffaloe; this defends him from
r assagay, but it is not proof against a musquet-ball. The
nanages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half
of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the
and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When
ngagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently
the distance of fifteen or twenty paces; in which case it
of the intended effect.

ignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In
ile heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the
v; and in case the king should have neither children nor
chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these
irit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to fac-
igues that generally end in bloodshed.

s customary among the Caffrees; their marriages are even
han those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom
content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather
but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice,
ance, for weeks together, according to the wealth of the
these feasts are never held but on the first espousals.
musical instruments, but such as are used by the Hotten-
their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

h of the father, the sons and the mother divide the pro-
ft between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, re-
with their mother and brother, unless it pleases some man
and if this circumstance takes place during the life of the
receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father.
seldom buried, but carried away from the kraal by their
eposited in a deep trench common to the whole horde
ons, where the wild beasts repair at leisure; which pre-
rom those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefac-
asion. The honours of burial are due only to the king
orde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the
e.

uainted with the disposition of the Caffrees respecting love
but believe that they only feel the latter sensation in re-
countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women, for a
tion, to the first white man that expresses an inclination

AFRICA IN GENERAL.] The history of the continent of
known, and probably affords no materials which deserve
re so. We know from the ancients, who sailed a con-
round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same
2000 years ago in which they are at present: that is,
humanity about them but the form. This may either
r by supposing that nature has placed some insuperable
the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants
that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage
and degenerating from one age to another, at length
capable of making any progress in civilisation or science,
n, that all the attempts of Europeans, particularly of the

Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination for, or even idea of, the European manner of living.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahomy and Widah, the most noted of any for the inhuman slave-trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged, in the negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West-India islands might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa has exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thousand miles to the sea-coast, their villages having been surrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the negroes in our settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes regulated by the slave-trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual, condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say they are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of those nations."

It is high time for the legislature to interfere, and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant to the principles of our constitution. Let the negroes already in our islands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; measures that would be attended with no less profit than honour.

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## AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Of the African islands, some lie in the Eastern, or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western, or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are, Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora islands, Bonrbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map*

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east long. 55; north lat. 12; thirty leagues east of Cape Guardasui, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their

e to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding most of its and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together rankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are nedans of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a or sheik, who is probably tributary to the Porte.

ELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the t the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situated in east long. north lat. 12; about four miles both from the Arabian and ian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, y contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as ands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communica- h the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through e commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since very of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of portance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy rth, not five miles round.

ORA. These islands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, and Comora, situated between 41 and 46 east long. and be- and 14 south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and ent of Africa. Joanna, or Hinzuan, the chief, and which ex- te from the others, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, ls plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between s. East-India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for its. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mahomedan persua- entertain our seamen with great humanity.

GASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is tween 43 and 51 deg. east long. and between 10 and 26 south les south east of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 ngth from north to south, and generally between 200 and broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and extremely tween this island and the continent of the Cape of Good ing a channel or passage, through which all European ships in e to and from India generally sail, unless prevented by storms. ar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding oney, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, , precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and champaign; h numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is mperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot cli- inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some negroes, some Mahomedans, some Pagans. The whites a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended abs, as is evident from their language and their religious re are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except r sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, nt yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circum- dren, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury Many of them observe the Jewish sabbath, and give some e sacred history, the creation and fall of man, as also of am, Moses, and David; from whence it is conjectured nded from Jews who formerly settled here, though none or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, ch took possession of it in 1641; but the people disliking ent, they were driven out in 1652; since which the na-

tives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situated in east long. 56, south lat. 20, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers, well stocked with fish, and, though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in possession of the French.

BOURBON. The Isle of Bourbon is situated in east long. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about ninety miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequences than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco, (which the French have planted there,) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergrise, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, parroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor: and here their East-India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world, on the west: towards which division we now steer our course, touching on our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena,

ension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Ca- and Madeira islands. *See the Map.*

. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, ted in west long. 5. 49, south lat. 15. 55, being 1200 miles west of ontinent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is k, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very , and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the nd of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with ater; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is ally difficult landing even there. There is no other anchorage the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and, as the wind always blows he south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes ams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and corn: of the last, however, most part is devoured by rats, which r in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity nerally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the ppears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably di- l with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees den-stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking nge shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, rrack, sugar, &c.

lena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Con- he Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the se ever planted a colony here: and the English East-India Com- s possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till 673, when the Dutch took it by surprize. However, the Eng- r the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East-India lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, hem descended from English parents. The East-India ships ater and fresh provisions here, in their way home; but the small, and the wind so much against them, outward-bound, nen very seldom see it.

pany's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-go- l store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the besides a public table, well furnished, to which all com- nasters of ships, and principal passengers, are welcome.

SION. This island is situated in 7 deg. 49 min. south lat. 18 min. west long. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascen- nd is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, ited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East- nerally touch, to furnish themselves with turtle, or tortoises, ry plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing ounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time, rn two or three hundred of them on their backs before d are sometimes so cruel as to turn many more than they hem to die on the shore.

THEW. This is a small island lying in 6-1 west long. and . 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also the Portuguese; who planted and kept possession of it for

some time, but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDOPO, are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin: all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden-stuff; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an English and French squadron), is situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships; those outward-bound to Guinea or the East Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of MAYO, or MAY, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring-tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited on board their ships. The sea-water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-41, W. long. 17-20, and was so called by the Dutch from an island and

of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot, not exceeding
niles in circumference; but its importance arises from its situation
ide so near Cape Verd, and has been therefore an object of con-
n between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch,
whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was
n by the Dutch, and in 1667 subdued by the French, in whose
sion it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms, every
triumphant, again reduced it; but it was restored to the French
reaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English the last
ut given up again by the peace of 1783.

JARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands,
n in number, and situated between 12 and 19 deg. west long.
ween 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles south-west of
o. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Tene-
rand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. These islands
pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits,
y grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name
ry, of which the greatest part is exported to England, to the
it is computed, in time of peace, of 10,000 hogsheads annually.
aries abound with those little beautiful birds that bear their
id are now so common and so much admired in Europe; but
l notes in their native land far excel those in a cage or foreign

Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about
in circumference, and so extremely fertile, as to produce two
n a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that
and Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country
in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered
tains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in
with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily
it 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The
ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in cir-
, and, according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Ro-
blished in the Philosophical Transactions, nearly three miles
ar; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This
a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of
melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren de-
e islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthagi-
the Romans, destroying that state, put a stop to the naviga-
vest coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from
e world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards
1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that
natives resemble the Africans in their stature and com-
n the Spaniards first came among them, their language was
a that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their
e masters of no science, and did not know there was any
world besides their own.

AS. The three islands called the Madeiras are situated,
the author of Anson's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-27
from 18-30 to 19-30 west long. about 100 miles north of
and as many west of Salee, in Morocco. The largest,
e rest derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of
rly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles
ad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one
of a considerable height, extending from east to west;

the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay: towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most delicious fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax. It abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar-trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmelade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brasils in America. The Portuguese, not finding it so profitable as at first, have pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, Malmsey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. Not less than 20,000 hogsheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one called Porto Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds except the south-west, and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward-bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, situated between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioса, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish

s. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery; on the Portuguese set sail immediately and took possession of them, they still retain. They were called in general the Azores, from at number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are d to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suf- and also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, r, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also fowl, and fish. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animal on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a irs.

fichael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circum- and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and ed by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera ost important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which ius and has good anchorage; but it is exposed to the south-east Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, ie residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the

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# AMERICA.

## ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and ich, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many nore to that of nature than any other division of the globe. ular circumstances of this country require that we should in sure vary our plan, and, before describing its present state, af- information with regard to its discovery as is most necessary ng our readers.

s the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the rs in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An in- of interests inspired a mutual rivalship; but in traffic Venice superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely hrough the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and a. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, vledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was ior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, con- oject of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, ning to his country a new source of opulence and power. oposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded nned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indigna- bus retired from his country, and laid his scheme before the nce; where his reception was still more mortifying, and rding to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cau- of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great n design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and ut this time began to operate, he had reason to expect r. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creep-

ing along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more intent on his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it ensured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and, having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-word of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in the great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of the *West Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and, even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the Eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared: all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked, 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or

acity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most de-
our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from
and to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to ac-
ong mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with
field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding
jects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to
antage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made,
acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number
own countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the
of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where
blished a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous
for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a
able time in this employment, and laboured for establishing this
with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no
he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other dis-
and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived
m. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some spe-
seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a
me great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascer-
point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along
ern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of
of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which
l inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave
opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the
pected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de*
or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress,
always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage, Ja-
is discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus ex-
an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he
o Hispaniola without learning any thing more certain with re-
iba, the main object of this enterprise.

first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turn-
miration; but, by a continuance of the same success, admira-
nerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in
ainst him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious
accusation against such as are employed in the execution of
ve and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain,
is character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose
plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning
, in order to obviate the objections or calumny of his ene-

ot without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on
pedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto under-
e designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries until he
er the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly west-
he might discover what opening that might afford to India,
w islands, or what continent, might reward his labour. In this
after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering num-
onveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the
y were at length favoured with a smart gale, and went be-
teen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a sea-
nd, which was an island, on the coast of Guiana, now called
Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the
ne great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprised with an
he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult

of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But, sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where, in a friendly manner, he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brasil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions. Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which afterwards composed the British empire in North America: and Amerigo Vespuccio, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name, all the world knows that Columbus was the first discoverer. The boast deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit. For, such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one-half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him and accomplished the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himself at court, was restored to favour, and undertook another voyage, in which he suffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were situated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprized and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent: from what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America.

the empire of Mexico, rich, powerful, and inhabited by
of Indians passionately fond of war, and then headed by Mon-
whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations.
istory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that
ar. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages; its inha-
t is said, were not rude and barbarous, every thing announced
d and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of
se wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year con-
arly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the
admiration and terror over all the continent; and their go-
t, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion,
o bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the em-
ated in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monu-
American industry. It communicated with the continent by
causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city
ired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-
e shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sump-
aces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and
g whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the
of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards.
in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations
coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance:
ke animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the ar-
under which issued from their hands, the wooden castles, which
ed them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from
ey did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the
s marched, they spared neither age nor sex, nothing sacred or
At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states
coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into
nce, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed,
e conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to
and, in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and
whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma
his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is
by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals,
each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants armed
s and arrows; and yet he dared not resist a handful of Spaniards,
a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the
rse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabit-
e two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which
arched before them.

ding a rich present of gold, which only excited the Spanish
Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No oppo-
s made to their entry into his capital. A palace was set apart
z and his companions, who were already treated as the masters
w world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the af-
liteness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot
estruction to be concealed: but he had no pretence for vio-
Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater
s than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with ar-
e most terrible of all engines to the Americans. At last a
nce took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning
s. In order to secure a communication by sea, to receive the
reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left a small garri
im, at Vera Cruz, which has since become an empo

of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the body of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned to live with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of European address. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans paid the highest respect, or rather superstitious veneration, for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom; and, at the same time, having a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect, Montezuma was there to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited, through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long time; but, on one of those occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who had operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico.

The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain amounted to 600,000 marks of fine gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones; a fifth part of which, distributed among his soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence: but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the emperor were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed the sense of the pains that he endured "Do you imagine I lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obe-

ce to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his nds, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the golden astile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, ey obtained intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the quinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound gold and silver and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince ore magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, hich extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other coun- y in America that deserved the name of a civilised kingdom. Whe- er it happened that the Spanish government had not received cer- in intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multi- icity of other concerns, it did not choose to adventure on new en- rprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than lexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expense of ree private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, lmagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. he two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither ad nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, btained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out r the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we re- ect, that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with he Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, beside, of character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after hat has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that with this inconsi- erable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian mpire. There were particular circumstances, likewise, which con- pired to assist him; and which, as they discover somewhat of the his- ry, religion, and state of the human mind, in this immense continent, may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was ne of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, an observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to eir own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were aturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the Sun. le pretended, therefore, to be descended from that luminary, whose orship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a edulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his isdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force id the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united id civilised the dispersed barbarous people; he subjected them to ws, and trained them to arms; he softened them by the institution of benevolent religion: in short, there was no part of America where riculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the ople were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ceeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by e people as descendents of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of ese was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, uana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had arried the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this

marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of religion, which, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose, temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing generously with those he called barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilised than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5,000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ransom. On this occasion, the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most sumptuous temples were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause should suffer by a rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not incapable to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. sterling; and, considering the value of money at that time was prodigious, the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had above 2,000l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a

r in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent tunes would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified: it was possible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had emselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arved, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a further reason for detaining Atalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another easure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no ore to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding prince from whom they expected no further advantage, or that Pirro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on acunt of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in s character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his fairs, it is certain, that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. o justify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited ainst the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of ving many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertience. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his rother, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even is was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his estruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the eath of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. he principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro t up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians enleavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. hese distractions, which, in another empire, would have been extremely rtful, and, even here, at another time, were, at present, rather adantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one nother: their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and ch is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a tal lethargy, that, in the course of those quarrels among themselves, inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, hom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The ses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsirable in themselves, were rendered dangerous by lessening the opion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among e inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pirro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the ndations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he newed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made mself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was enged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. zarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea coast, to the southward of at had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southrd of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dis- e between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded rival that the country which really belonged to him lay to the uthward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and ght be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in estion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom,

for himself, listened to his advice; and, joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being absent, and Almagro removed at a distance, they were very near successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand objects of their former labours. He raised the siege, with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but, having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and their resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success: but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to raise head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire the world, was still urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquests. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced the other part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons, an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans

l Almagro now declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy. .t the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with : fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited : orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who sent over ica di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and isdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, id to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it id for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, became object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were lenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of commodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, at Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the panish ministry by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would lways expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice council was sent over to control Castro, and the colony was again unettled. The party spirit, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; nd Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head f his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents had nited. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the ounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ubmission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far s to behead a governor, who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs; when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake, in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not opportunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself offered a full indemnity, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be recorded under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them

in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing, at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

## Of the Original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy and commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, or untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill-founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied, according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances, too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they called barbarism; but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations in Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of an

ent, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most conlerable, they never speak but when they have something important to serve, and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with me meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost connually engaged in pursuits which to them are of the highest importance. heir subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their nds; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, ay be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. s they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than nother, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in reatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and rts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are, for the same eason, extremely small, when compared with civilised societies, in which ndustry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of ndividuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a lesert frontier, and hid in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundess forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged; and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and, the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to ephance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and one act of illjudged violence would deprive him of the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with the

utmost simplicity, and such as may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they use, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him: for every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

> "A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
> "Burns with one love, with one resentment glows."

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships or their resentments so far as they do: and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances: that principle in human nature, which is the

pring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the nore it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who ee few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these )bjects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling hemselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are oo narrow to entertain the sentiment of general benevolence, or even )f ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes hem cruel to an incredible degree towards those with whom they are it war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested; when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musquet-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire.

Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of further resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues: death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach, in a melancholy and severe gloom, to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation: all tears are wiped from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh

ith his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the owl of a pipe, made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then ey pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull ff the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-ot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately: they pull ff this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with reediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm f horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist he bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, hilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every ay that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six ours, and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. hen they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to ink what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength f the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of tor-ents, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply he fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened o the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over ith small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; hey continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag ut his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after hav-ng burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having o mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having muti-ated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after aving peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot oals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the retch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted nd pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, alling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of he chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an nd to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into he kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as arbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and ransformed into something worse than Furies, even outdo the men in his scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit ound the stake, smoking, and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals f his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with is torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time f his execution, there seems a contest, which shall exceed, they in in-licting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness nd constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a dis-ortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in he midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs hem what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threat-ns them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his eproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he ontinues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, ointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the ody to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as he men: and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonder-ul power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. *I am rave and intrepid*, exclaims the savage in the faces of his tormentors.

tle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field, and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods; traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and, except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and in almost every disease direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot, on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics, of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district,

ch a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their anty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South merica, compared with those of North America, are generally more eble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a ntle but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in dolence.

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## A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

HIS great western continent, frequently denominated the NEW ORLD, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree outh latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 36th degree of west longitude from London; stretching between 8 nd 9000 miles in length, and its greatest breadth 3690. It lies in both emispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the ariety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two reat oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it om Europe and Africa; and to the west the Pacific, or Great South ea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, arry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the outh, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind f isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely arrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no eans difficult, being only sixty miles over. In the great gulf which is ormed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, e a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, nd denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries nd islands of Asia beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called ie East Indies.

Before we proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it ill be proper to take notice of those mountains and rivers which dis- ain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, nd extend over a great part of the continent. For, though America, general, be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from orth to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in ngth any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe: extend- g from the isthmus of Darien to the straits of Magellan, they divide e whole southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. heir height is as remarkable as their length; for, though in part within e torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. Chimborazo, e highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from e summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by e French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high. In North merica, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents or level plains, e know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, nd that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, se- rating them from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apala- ian or Allegany mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain,

which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse each part with the others. In North America, those vast tracts of country situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada: which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misouri, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and to the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland: all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilised people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door,

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The first, rising in Peru not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brasil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and, having its strength gradually augmented by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoko is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of these valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochi-

al, indigo, anatto, log-wood, brasil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, barillas, l-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article medicine the Jesuits' bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, narinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, d plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either tire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and rica, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then grossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here ow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, nons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes; great mbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as eat perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large cts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into lonies, by three European nations; the Spanish; English, and Portu- ese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and hest portions, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North merica, to the Straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the rge province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for, though the ench and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they arcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the thern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was reat Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first scovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry II. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in neral called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated lely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made attempt to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon nius and a brave commander, first showed the way, by planting a ony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his stress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 63, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, mprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hud- n's bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulph of the same name, on e south; regions which all Europe could not people in the course of any ages. The multitude of islands, which lie between the two con- ents of North and South America, are divided amongst the Spa- ards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four all islands, which in other hands would be of no consequence; and e Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named ong the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the par- ular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; t Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, ith those vast regions towards the pole, are little known.

A summary View of the first Settlements of NORTH AMERICA

| *Names of Places.* | *When settled.* | *By whom.* |
|---|---|---|
| Quebec ..... | 1608 | By the French. |
| Virginia June 10, ... | 1609 | By Lord de la War. |
| Newfoundland June | 1610 | By Governor John Guy. |
| New York, New Jersey | about 1614 | By the Dutch. |
| Plymouth ..... | 1620 | By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation. |
| New Hampshire ... | 1623 | By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscatsqua river. |
| Delaware, Pennsylvania ... | 1627 | By the Swedes and Fins. |
| Massachusetts Bay... | 1628 | By Capt. John Endicot and Company. |
| Maryland..... | 1633 | By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman catholics. |
| Connecticut ..... | 1635 | By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river. |
| Rhode Island ..... | 1635 | By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren. |
| New Jersey ..... | 1664 | Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II, and made a distinct government and settled some time before this by the English. |
| South Carolina ..... | 1669 | By Governor Sale. |
| Pennsylvania ..... | 1682 | By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers. |
| North Carolina, about | 1728 | Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English. |
| Georgia ..... | 1732 | By General Oglethorpe. |
| Kentucky ..... | 1773 | By Col. Daniel Boon. |
| Vermont ..... | 1777 | By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England |
| Territory N. W. of Ohio River | 1787 | By the Ohio and other Companies. |

## The Grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

| Colonies. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Towns. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New Britain..... | 850 | 750 | 318,750 | | | Great Britain |
| Province of Quebec | 600 | 200 | 100,000 | Quebec | | Ditto |
| New Scotland, New Brums. | 350 | 250 | 57,000 | Halifax, Shelburne | | Ditto |
| New England ... | 550 | 200 | 87,400 | Boston | 2760 W. | United States |
| New York ..... | 300 | 150 | 24,000 | New York | | Ditto |

| Colonies. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Towns. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| w Jersey ..... | 160 | 60 | 10,000 | Perth Amboy | | United States |
| nsylvania ... | 300 | 240 | 15,000 | Philadelphia | | Ditto |
| yland..... | 140 | 135 | 12,000 | Annapolis | | Ditto |
| ginia ..... | 750 | 240 | 80,000 | Williamsburg | | Ditto |
| th Carolina<br>th Carolina<br>rgia ..... | 700 | 380 | 110,000 | Edenton<br>Charles-town<br>Savannah | | Ditto<br>Ditto<br>Ditto |
| t Florida<br>st Florida | 500 | 440 | 100,000 | St. Augustine<br>Pensacola | | Spain<br>Ditto |
| isiana..... | 1200 | 645 | 516,000 | New Orleans | 4080 SW. | Ditto |
| w Mexico<br>California | 2000 | 1000 | 600,000 | St. Fee<br>St. Juan | 4320 SW. | Ditto<br>Ditto |
| xico, or<br>w Spain | 2000 | 600 | 318,000 | Mexico | 4900 SW. | Ditto |

The Thirteen United States - - - - - - 238,000 Sq. Miles.

British Possessions in North America { Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick { - 150,000

## Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

| Nations. | Len. | Brea. | Sq. Miles. | Chief Cities. | Dist. & bearing from London. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ra Firma..... | 1400 | 700 | 700,000 | Panama | 4650 SW. | Spain |
| u..... | 1800 | 600 | 970,000 | Lima | 5520 SW. | Ditto |

azonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| iana..... | 780 | 480 | 250,000 | Surinam<br>Cayenne | 3840 SW. | Dutch<br>French |
| sil ..... | 2560 | 700 | 940,000 | St. Sebastian | 6000 SW. | Portugal |
| ag. or La Plata | 1500 | 1000 | 1,000,000 | Buenos Ayres | 6040 SW. | Spain |
| li..... | 1200 | 500 | 206,000 | St. Jago | 6600 SW. | Spain |
| ra Magel-<br>nica, or Pa-<br>gonia | 1400 | 460 | 325,000 | The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there. | | |

The principal Islands of North America belonging to Europeans, &c.

| | Islands. | Length. | Breadth. | Square Miles. | Chief Town. | Belongs to |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| In the Gulf of St. Laur. | Newfoundland | 350 | 200 | 35,500 | Placentia | Great Britain |
| | Cape Breton | 110 | 80 | 4,000 | Louisbourg | Ditto |
| | St. John's | 60 | 30 | 500 | Charles-town | Ditto |
| In the Atlan. | The Bermuda Isles | 20,000 acres | | 40 | St. George | Ditto |
| | The Bahama ditto | very numerous | | | Nassau | Ditto |
| West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America. | Jamaica | 140 | 60 | 6,000 | Kingston | Ditto |
| | Barbadoes | 21 | 14 | 140 | Bridgetown | Ditto |
| | St. Christopher | 20 | 7 | 80 | Basse-terre | Ditto |
| | Antigua | 20 | 20 | 100 | St. John's | Ditto |
| | Nevis and Monteserrat | each of these is 18 circum. | | | Charles-town<br>Plymouth | Ditto<br>Ditto |
| | Barbuda | 20 | 12 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Anguilla | 30 | 10 | 60 | | Ditto |
| | Dominica | 28 | 13 | 150 | Rousseau | Ditto |
| | St. Vincent | 24 | 18 | 150 | Kingston | Ditto |
| | Granada | 30 | 15 | 150 | St. George's | Ditto |
| | Tobago | 32 | 9 | 108 | | France |
| | Cuba | 700 | 90 | 33,400 | Havannah | Spain |
| | Hispaniola | 450 | 150 | 36,000 | St. Domingo | Dn & Fr |
| | Porto Rico | 100 | 49 | 3,200 | Porto Rico | Spain |
| | Trinidad | 90 | 60 | 2,897 | St. Joseph | Ditto |
| | Margarita | 40 | 24 | 624 | | Ditto |
| | Martinico | 60 | 30 | 300 | St. Peter's | France* |
| | Guadaloupe | 45 | 38 | 250 | Basse-terre | Ditto* |
| | St. Lucia | 23 | 12 | 90 | | Ditto* |
| | St. Bartholomew, Deseada, and Marigalanta | all of them inconsiderable. | | | | Ditto†<br>Ditto<br>Ditto |
| | St. Eustatia | 29 | circum. | | The Bay | Dutch |
| | Carassou | 30 | 10 | 342 | | Ditto |
| | St. Thomas | 15 | circum. | | | Denmark |
| | St. Croix | 30 | 10 | | Basse End | Ditto |

British Islands in NORTH AMERICA, and the WEST INDIES, 46,570 square miles.

* In the present war with France (1777) some of these islands, and parts of others, have revolted from their masters. But as the events of war are uncertain, it is impossible to ascertain with any precision to whom they belong, until the termination of hostilities.

† Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

# BRITISH AMERICA,

## NEW BRITAIN,

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 850<br>Breadth 750 | between | 50 and 70 North lat.<br>50 and 100 West lon. | 318,750 |

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and ommonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending abrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands nd frozen seas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean n the East; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada on the outh; and by unknown lands on the West.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country toards the North, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds lowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of old in the winter over all this country, which is not experienced in ny other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle; and the chief rivers are the Moose, Severn, Rupert, Nelson, and Black River.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren. To the orthward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, nd the cold womb of the earth has been supposed incapable of any etter production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European eed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has hitherto erished; but perhaps the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sween and Norway would be more suitable to the soil. All this severity, nd long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which omes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two; in the emperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] These are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have eese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild-fowls. Of sh, there are whales, morses, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, nd trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety ousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five ousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm r. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colurs of the several animals. When that season is over, which holds only

for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phænomenon; but it is yet more surprising, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

Before we advance further in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurettee, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to men in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them are despicable, in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore, in the southern parts of America, are different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada as Russia: while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in Southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them to become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country show great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves, and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them for the greatest part of the year: in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already described.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern

as and countries was owing to a project started in England for the scovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as ten revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of scovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be und. Forbisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 85, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the ore northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. udson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first in 1607; second in 1608; and the third and last in 1610. This bold and ju-cious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterra-an, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and pene-ated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. is ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he ruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal rdships without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized on him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and com-itted them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and s companions were either swallowed up by the seas, or, gaining the hospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the st of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a discovery was made in 1746, by captain lis, who wintered as far north as fifty-seven degrees and a half; but ough the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they na-gated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great ad-ntage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's y, as we have already observed, abound with animals whose fur and ins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, hich does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive ade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since, with great nefit to the private men who compose the company, though compara-ely with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade ght be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the nds of this exclusive company, whose interested spirit has been the bject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships d 130 seamen. They have several forts; viz. Prince of Wales, urchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west e of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French attacked, k, and made some depredations on them the last war, it was said, to amount of 400,000l. They export commodities to the value of ,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to revenue 3,734l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This mmerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and en some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs are all manufac-ed in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, h things are sent of which we have the greatest plenty, and which, the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship y happen to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilised people uld take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay enter gely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with ny nations of Europe to great advantage.

# CANADA, OR THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 600<br>Breadth 200 | between | 61 and 81 West longitude.<br>45 and 52 North latitude. | 100,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudson's Bay on the North and East; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South; and by unknown lands on the West.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the sea, and more northerly than a great part of these provinces, it has a much severer winter; though the air is generally clear; but, like most of those American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the summers are very hot, and exceedingly pleasant.

SOIL and PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orléans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these provinces, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them here at some length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white

horn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of owers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, roduce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a od containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which re- embles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; urkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop lant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in me of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This coun- y also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very nu- erous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, e Outtauais, St. John, Seguinay, Despraires, and Trois Rivières, but ey are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues om the Lake Ontario, and, taking its course north-east, washes Mont- al, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It ontinues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles om the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Que- c, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of e line contributed, in the war before the last, to reduce that capital. fter receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls to the ocean at Cape Rosiéres, where it is ninety miles broad, and here the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it rms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands; many of them are fruit- l, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the rench (now subjects of Great Britain) have settlements of any note; ut if we look forward into futurity, it is not improbable that Canada, d those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these ountries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is e Lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference. rie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. hat of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference t less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like Lake Erie, it rather long, and comparatively narrow. But the Lake Superior, which ntains several large islands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of these e navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one an- her, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. he water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, t in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the nsternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or ther violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below: m which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as hite as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent itations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fif- n miles, and sometimes much further. The vapour arising from the l may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the n and the position of the traveller favour. Many beasts and fowls re lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the ids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and some-

times the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers, or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds: they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who wage a continual war with this animal, believe it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader resembling their own sachem or prince.—It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to shew the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw colour: but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or x pounds), which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and affords very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable id nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. hey love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no rass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very ear this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously i his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the nter throws his clothes to him; and while the deluded animal spends s fury on these, he takes proper measures to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it seve- l times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the id of the snout to the tail. It is said that this animal, winding him- lf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail und his body, and tear his throat open in a moment.

The buffalo is a kind of wild ox, of much the same appearance with ose of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly teemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides e as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the ıcklers which the Indians make of them are hardly penetrable by musquet-ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but dif- rs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in anada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country. Their flesh white, and good to eat; they pursue their prey to the tops of the llest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but ose of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mis- sippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water- wls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic tricks, d then spring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a ost beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as t. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles entifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian ood-rat is of a beautiful-silver colour, with a bushy-tail, and twice as g as the European; the female carries under her belly a bag, which e opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when rsued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying squir- will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This le animal is easily tamed, and is very lively. The Canadian porcu- ne is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a :king pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, ly they turn grey in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most ngerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded or pressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of y, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them: during the winter y remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely any thing among the lians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; l an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one , is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered iself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the ily with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, ter-

cols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring or row of scales; so that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good: it also possesses medicinal qualities.

Some writers are of opinion, that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaise; salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourason, sturgeon, the achigan; the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, sole, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest is said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting coverings for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it hath two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence

e said to yield a hogshead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are ade, which are excessively strong, and musquet proof. The lencornet a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hogshead, d others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a rch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell a small cod. The sea-plaise is good eating; they are taken with long les armed with iron hooks. The chaourason is an armed fish, about e feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; it is vered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a ver grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, gged at the edges. One may easily conceive, that an animal so well rtified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have w instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this h does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the nes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides s weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface the water; the fowls which come to take rest, imagining the wea- n to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner ghted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden mo- n to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an in- bitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, en on the coast of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet g, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, e flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau and e gilthead are fish peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the ers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the le.

[INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the nks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vastly populous: t we cannot precisely determine the number of French and English tled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increase. In e year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 0,000 inhabitants*. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are ost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in po- lation where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the noderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. t as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally sup- e, that, as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more lant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, tly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an up- and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolera- manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The n is defended by a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the go- nor resides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 5,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues d, narrows all on a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, ch lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five oms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, they amounted to 113,012 English and French, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists, d in the upper parts of the province.

25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montréal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montréal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montréal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. The place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montréal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it has suffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it should be lawful for his majesty, his heirs, and successors, by warrant under his or their signet or sign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall be pleased to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of the members of the said council, in like manner to constitute and

ppoint others to succeed them. And this council, so appointed and ominated, or the majority of them, are vested with power and autho-ty to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of ıe province, with the consent of the governor, or, in his absence, of ıe lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. 'he council, however, are not empowered to lay taxes, except for the urpose of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or such local onveniences. By this act, all matters of controversy relative to pro-erty and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Ca-ada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the pro-ince. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act not only ) profess the Roman religion, but the popish clergy are invested with right to claim and obtain their accustomed dues from those of the ıme religion.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, severely cold ı winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shows what Canada rincipally wants from Europe: wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly ıarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, to-acco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, atchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied ıem with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of ıe original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, ith incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the re-otest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. 'hese again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were ıereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from l parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair : Montréal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. 'n this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, ıd the governors assisted, to preserve order, in such a concourse, and so reat a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tu-ults happened; and the Indians, being so fond of brandy, frequently ıve for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable that any of these nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany, New York, and travelled 250 miles farther, to Montréal, though ey might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much d the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these vages.

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country ıs been computed to employ about 60 ships and 1000 seamen. Their ports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, pillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great itain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of is trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, dispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the productions our other settlements in the East and West Indies*.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, will be hardly possible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceed-ş from natural causes; principally the severity of the winter, which

* The amount of the exports from this province in the year 1786 was £.343,263: ount of imports the same year was £.325,116.

is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over; and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montréal, which render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate to the emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by these falls from going there annually.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

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# NOVA SCOTIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| | Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Length | 350 | between | 43 and 49 North latitude | 57,000 |
| Breadth | 250 | | 60 and 67 West longitude | |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the Gulph of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic Ocean, East; by the same ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, West. In the year 1784, this province was divided *into two governments:* the province and government now styled NEW BRUNSWICK is bounded on the westward of the river Ste. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec; to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eastward by the said bay to the Gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte; to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river Ste. Croix aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquat River; by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern bot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Risgouche and Nipisiguit run from West to East, and fall into the Bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Passamaquoddy, Penobscot, and Ste. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic Ocean, Fundy Bay, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are Chenigto and Green Bay upon the isthmus, which join the north part of Nova Scotia to the south, and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east; the bay of the islands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Mutois, port Rossignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Funday Bay; and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port, and Epis, on the east; Cape Forgeri, and Cape Canceau, on the south-east: Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape

Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south; Cape Sable and Cape Fourche the south-west.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received ticular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the tempe- zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. ey are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the r, and for four or five months it is intensely cold; but though the l in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradu-, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately was almost ntinued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English lers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass in- ixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; e are tracts in the peninsula, to the southward, which do not yield to best land in New England, and, by the industry and exertions of the lists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be le and flourishing. In general, the soil is adapted to the produce of p and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and luces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the ovements making in the new settlements and Bay of Fundy. eat quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; ship-loads of good masts and spars have been shipped from thence dy.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions ie neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. l fowl and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and e well. At the close of March the fish begin to spawn, when enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valua- ppendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is ontinued range of cod-fishing banks, navigable rivers, basins, and lent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was that some of the first European settlements were made. The first of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, Sir William nder, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scot- Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private ietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, back- and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace recht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon rinciple, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of overnment, into this country. The town they erected is called ax, from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe ttlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto Bay, very odiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or naviga- ers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war

lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, and though but a small place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the Bay of Fundy, on the west side.

Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great: by them new towns have been raised; as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, and is said to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Barr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

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## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each

ates should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in Novem-
er of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its dele-
ates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others
their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be re-
esented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members;
nd no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three
ears, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate,
apable of holding any office under the United States, for which he,
r any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolu-
ent of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in
ongress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the
etermination of the United States in congress assembled, on all ques-
ons submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the con-
deration were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union
o be perpetual: nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any
f them, unless previously agreed to in a congress of the United States,
nd afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state. It was on
he 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of
nity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America,
s independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19,
782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were
gned at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which
s Britannic majesty acknowledged the thirteen colonies to be free,
overeign, and independent states; and these articles were afterwards
tified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such
ebruary 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March,
nd Russia in July, 1783.

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*he following Calculations were made from the actual Measurement of the best Maps, by* THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esq. *Geographer to the United States.*

| | |
|---|---|
| he territory of the United States contains, by computation, a million square miles, in which are - - - - | 640,000,000 of acres. |
| educt for water - - - | 51,000,000 |
| cres of land in the United States - | 589,000,000 |

That part of the United States comprehended between the west tem-
orary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between
ritain and the United States, extending from the river Ste. Croix to
e north west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the
ver Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river
hio on the south, to the afore-mentioned bounds of Pennsylvania, con-
ins by computation, about four hundred and eleven thousand square
iles; in which are,

| | |
|---|---|
| | 263,040,000 of acres. |
| educt for water - - - - - | 43,040,000 |
| o be disposed of by order of congress - - | 220,000,000 |

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western terri-
ry, containing as above stated 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by
e cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of
ace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund

for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions, similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean.

*Estimate of the Number of Acres of Water, north and westward of the River Ohio, within the territory of the United States.*

| | Acres. |
|---|---|
| In Lake Superior - - - - | 21,952,780 |
| Lake of the Woods - - - - | 1,133,900 |
| Lake Rain, &c. - - - - - | 165,200 |
| Red Lake - - - - - | 551,000 |
| Lake Michigan - - - - | 10,568,000 |
| Bay Puan - - - - - | 1,216,000 |
| Lake Huron - - - - | 5,009,920 |
| Lake St. Clair - - - - | 99,500 |
| Lake Erie, western part, - - - | 2,252,400 |
| Sundry small lakes and rivers - - - | 501,000 |
| | 43,040,000 |

*Estimate of the Number of Acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.*

| | Acres. | |
|---|---|---|
| In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north, to the boundary between the British territory and the United States - | 410,000 | |
| In Lake Ontario - - - | 2,390,000 | |
| Lake Champlain - - - | 500,000 | |
| Chesapeak Bay - - - | 1,700,000 | |
| Albemarle Bay - - - | 330,000 | |
| Delaware Bay - - - | 630,000 | |
| All the Rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio, - - | 2,000,000 | |
| | | 7,960,000 |
| Total - | | 51,000,000 |

The territory of the United States is in length 1,250 miles, and in breadth 1,040; lying between 31 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 64 and 96 degrees of west longitude. They consist at present of sixteen separate independent states, having governors, constitutions, and laws of their own, united under a general federal constitution, administered by an elective head, and by a proportionate number of representatives of the people from all the states. They are classed in three grand divisions, as follows:

| I. The NEW ENGLAND, or EASTERN, or NORTHERN STATES. | II. The MIDDLE STATES. |
|---|---|
| Vermont | New York |
| New Hampshire | New Jersey |
| Massachusetts, including the District of Maine. | Pennsylvania |
| Rhode Island and Connecticut. | Delaware. |

III. The SOUTHERN STATES.

| | |
|---|---|
| Maryland | South Carolina |
| Virginia | Georgia |
| Kentucky | Tennessee. |
| North Carolina | |

esides which there is the extensive North-western territory men- *d above*, which is gradually settling, and is hereafter, when its po- tion shall be sufficiently increased, to be divided into new states.

PULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.] According to the census by order of congress, in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of nited States of America was 3,930,000 nearly. In this number of the inhabitants of the territory N. W. of the river Ohio, and part of the inhabitants south of the river Ohio, are included. added would undoubtedly have increased the number to 000* at the period the census was taken. The increase since, position that the inhabitants of the United States double once in years, has been about 600,000; so that now there are probably 00 souls in the American United States.

ENT AND FUTURE CONSTITUTION OF CONGRESS. } Such are the extensive dominions dependent on congress, which, to- with a president chosen for four years, consists, since 1789, of a nd house of representatives. The senate is composed of two from each state, elected for six years; and the house of repre- s of one representative, chosen every second year, for every ee thousand inhabitants in each state, until the number has ex- ne hundred: since which there is not to be less than one repre- for every forty thousand until the number of representatives to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion be- people and their representatives is to be so regulated by con- there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor one representative for every fifty thousand persons. This is te limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the n of the general government of their Union.

of congress and government, after the year 1800, is to be re- he new *City of Washington*, now building on a tract of land e States of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and *Territory of Columbia*. This city, which has been several ng, stands at the junction of the river Patowmack and the nch, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a itory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and none in America. It is laid out in straight streets from h, intersected by others running due east and west. The eets are from 130 to 160, and the others from 90 to 110 The capital or state-house is situated on a most beautiful mmanding a complete view of every part of the city, iderable part of the country round. It is 42 miles south- ore, and 144 in the same direction from Philadelphia; in 3; west long. 77-43.

* Morse's American Geography, Vol. i. p. 207.

# NEW ENGLAND.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 350<br>Breadth 140 | between | 41 and 46 North latitude<br>67 and 74 West longitude | 87,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North by Canada; on the East by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the Atlantic and Long-Island Sound; and on the West by New York*. It comprehends the States of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in some parts a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south, in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea-coast; and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior parts of the country. These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England†.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piscataway; 6. Saco; 7. Casco; 8. Kennebeque; and, 9. Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations; Monument Bay; West Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boston Harbour; Piscataway; and Casco Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Ann, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though situated almost ten degrees nearer the sun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe than with us. The summer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American provinces. The

* Morse's American Geography. † Morse.

nds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe e early approach, and the length and severity of the winter, to the ge fresh-water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, nich, being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds hich prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

The sun rises at Boston, on the longest day, at twenty-six minutes ter four in the morning, and sets at thirty-four minutes after seven in e evening; and on the shortest day, it rises at thirty-five minutes ter seven in the morning, and sets at twenty-seven minutes after four the afternoon: thus their longest day is about fifteen hours, and the ortest about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already observed, that the lands ing on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts vampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, wards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The il here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round lassachusetts Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; id here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The lands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and avel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and asture-land. The European grains have not been cultivated here ith much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a ungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn ourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower rt of the people. They have likewise malt, and brew it into a beer, hich is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider nd spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with ie addition of a small quantity of melasses. They likewise raise in ew England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old ngland come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. even or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ingle apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cider in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value f its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, hesnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dyeing or anning leather, carpenter's work, and ship-building. The oaks here re said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amaz- ng bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of England with masts nd yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of itch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces emp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the roduce of their forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable ranch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich mines of iron, of a most excellent kind and temper, ave been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may ecome very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, nd multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, met- lesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple suf- iciently long, is not nearly so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minxes, martens, racoons, sables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds.

But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose and moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light gray moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes thirty together; and the larger black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag's, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heath-cocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of different kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale, which yields ambergrise, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas: but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in the winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

There is not one of the colonies which can be compared, in the abundance of the people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates; but the great body of the people are landholders and cultivators of the soil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them strong and healthy, enables them to defend it.* These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gravelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy to the exercise of arms; and before the contest with the mother country, they had a militia which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and

* Morse's American Geography.

eneral attention that has been paid to education, that the English lan-
uage has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is
ue, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with
ankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed them-
lves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in
flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New
nglandman from his manner of speaking. But the same may be said
ith regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, a Carolinian; for all have
me phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which
stinguish them from their neighbours.

The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well built. They
lory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom,
hich induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to
ave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling in a wil-
rness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them
ith high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is more gene-
lly diffused among all ranks of people than in any other part of the
obe; arising from the excellent establishment of schools in every
wnship. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write,
rarely to be found. By means of this general establishment of
hools, the extensive circulation of newspapers (of which not less than
),000 are printed every week in New England, and sent to almost
ery town and village in the country), and the consequent spread of
arning, every township, throughout this country, is furnished with men
pable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and
scretion*.

New England contains, according to the census of 1790, 1,009,522
uls, and, should any great and sudden emergency require it, could
rnish an army of 164,600 men†.

RELIGION.] Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, has
en very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants also
rmerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but this
th of late been much diminished. There is at present no established
ligion in New England; but every sect of Christians is allowed the
e exercise of his religion, and is equally under the protection of the
w‡. They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the
ring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a
y to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer,
roughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices,
at particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn,
er harvest, that gladsome æra of the husbandman's life, a day of pub-
thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received
the course of the year. This pious custom originates with their
nerable ancestors, the first settlers. The custom so rational, and so
ell calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their
pendence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their
essings, it is hoped, will ever be sacredly preserved‖. The Connec-
ut province has lately provided a bishop for the episcopalians among
em, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the
njuring bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom.

HISTORY.] As early as 1606, king James I. had, by letters patent,
ected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts,

* Morse's American Geography. † Morse.

‡ By a late account, there are 400 Independent and Presbyterian churches in this
vince, 84 Baptist, and 31 of other denominations.

‖ Morse's American Geography.

then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was sometimes called. No settlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory, which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they chose, 150 persons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long sea-voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves, for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charles-town, and Boston; which last became the capital of New England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best-founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions; and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments.

nce several slips, torn from the original government of New Eng-
d by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread
er the country. Such was that of New Hampshire, which continues
this day a separate jurisdiction; such too was that of Rhode Island,
ose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for
at is the name by which the government first erected in New Eng-
d was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious senti-
nts, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the
eculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city,
lled Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and,
ch is the connection between justness of sentiment and external pros-
rity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, became
tremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the
me persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received
quent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied
ther with the religious or civil government of that country.

America, indeed, was now become the main resource of all discon-
nted and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which em-
rked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was pub-
hed, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express
ence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said that
liver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of the party, were de-
ined from going into New England, after being on ship-board for
at purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual
fence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions.
hey were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great
easure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the
oice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly,
d the power of making such laws as they thought proper, without
nding them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their
ws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great Britain.
owards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his mi-
sters wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts
lony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as the city
London, and, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was
privedof it. From that time to the revolution, they remained with-
it any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one,
hich, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive
ivileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-
vernor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in
e crown: the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the
vernor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom
e execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the go-
rnor, with the advice of the council: the governor had a negative on
e choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not
bliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained
any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this co-
ny, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England,
r the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not re-
aled within three years after they were presented, they were not re-
alable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of
agistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid without the
vernor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300l. were
lmitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints,

the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, resembling our house of lords; and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

We shall now proceed to give an account of each state separately.

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# VERMONT.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 157 | between | 42 and 45 North latitude | 10,000 |
| Breadth 65 | | 72 and 73-30 West longitude | |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED on the North by Lower Canada; on the East, by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; on the South, by Massachusetts; and on the West, by New York. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. Its civil division is into eleven counties, as follow:

| | *Counties.* | *Towns.* |
|---|---|---|
| West of the Mountain | Bennington | Bennington |
| | Rutland | Rutland |
| | Addison | Addison |
| | Chiltendon | Colchester |
| | Franklin | |
| | Orleans | |
| East of the Mountain | Orange | Newbury |
| | Windsor | Windsor |
| | Windham | Newfane and Putney |
| | Caledonia | |
| | Essex | |

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in this state are Michiscoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter creek rivers, which run from east to west into Lake Champlain, West, Sexton's Block, Waterquechee, White Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Passumsick, and several smaller rivers, which run, from west to east, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length. Otter creek is navigable for boats fifty miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. Memphremagog is the largest lake in this state. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between it and Lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Laurence.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This state, generally speaking, is hilly, but not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland, northward to the Canada line, is a flat country, well adapted for tillage. The state at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef-cattle in the world are driven from this state: horses also are raised for exportation. Back from the rivers, the

nd is thickly timbered with birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter-nut, and hite oak of an excellent quality. The soil is well fitted for wheat, e, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this state trade incipally with Boston, New York, and Hartford. The articles of port are pot and pearl ashes; beef, which is the principal article; rses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. Vast quantities of t and pearl ashes are made in every part of this state: but one of its ost important manufactures is that of maple-sugar. It has been esti- ated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every nily back of Connecticut river, is 200lb. a year. One man, with t ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lb. of a quality equal imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county, contain- ; no more than forty families, 13,000lb. of sugar were made in the ar 1791.

POPULATION AND RELIGION.] In 1790, according to the census n taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of igrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendents. vo townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch. The ly of the people are congregationalists; the other denominations are sbyterians, baptists, and episcopalians. This state is rapidly peopling.

CHIEF TOWNS.] In a new and interior country, large populous vns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west ner of the state, is one of the largest. It contains about 2400 inha- ants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court- se and gaol.

Windsor and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately e the seat of government for eight years. The former is situated on nnecticut river, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies n Otter creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are rishing towns.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called Vermont, before the late , was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these rfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation. ey were not finally adjusted till since the peace. When hostilities menced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of district, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within jurisdiction either of New York or New Hampshire, associated, and ned a constitution for themselves. Under this constitution they have tinued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have spered. On the 4th of March, 1791, agreeably to act of congress December 6th, 1790, this state became one of the United States, constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable pillar of the erican Union.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislature consists of a house of representa- s, and a council of twelve, besides the governor, who is president, the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The freemen t annually in their several towns to choose the governor, counsellors, other magistrates; and to the privilege of voting, all males, twenty- years old, and of peaceable dispositions, are entitled, after taking oath of fidelity to the state. The judges of the supreme and county ts, sheriffs, and justices of the peace, are appointed annually, by ballot of the council and house. The council may originate bills, r than money-bills, and suspend till the next Session such bills as disapprove; but have not a final negative.

# NEW HAMPSHIRE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 168<br>Breadth from 90 to 19 | between | 42-41 and 45-11 North latitude<br>70-40 and 72-28 West longitude | 9,500 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW Hampshire is bounded by Lower Canada on the North; by the district of Maine on the East; by Massachusetts on the South; and by Connecticut river, which separates it from Vermont, on the West.

It is divided into five counties as follows:

| *Counties* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Rockingham ..... | Portsmouth and Concord |
| Strafford ..... | Dover and Durham |
| Cheshire ..... | Charles-town and Keene |
| Hillsborough ..... | Amherst |
| Grafton ..... | Plymouth. |

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The most considerable rivers of this state are the Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua, Saco, Androscoggin, Upper and Lower Amonoosuck, besides many other smaller streams. The chief lakes are Winnipiscogee, Umbagog, Sunopee, Squam, and Great Ossipee.

MOUNTAINS.] New Hampshire is intersected with several ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and the lofty ridge which divides the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the *Height of Land*. But the White Mountains, which run through this state, are undoubtedly the highest in all New England. Their height above an adjacent meadow is 3500 feet, and the meadow is 3500 above the level of the sea. They are almost continually covered with snow and ice, whence they have received the name of White Mountains. Though they are seventy miles inland, they are visible many leagues off at sea. One of their loftiest summits, which makes a majestic appearance along the shore of Massachusetts, has lately been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of New Hampshire is healthful, and the weather is commonly serene, and not so subject to variation as in the more southern states. From the vicinity of the White Mountains, which, as has been said, are almost always covered with snow and ice, this country is extremely cold in winter. In summer the heat is great, but of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt-marshes, intersected by creeks, which produce good pasture for cattle and sheep. The interval lands on the margin of great rivers are the most valuable, because they are overflowed and enriched by the water from the uplands, which brings a fat slime or sediment. On Connecticut river these lands are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side, and produce grass, corn, and grain, especially wheat, in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil does in the higher lands. The wide-spreading hills are esteemed as warm and rich; rocky moist land is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the valleys between the hills are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse,

ter, cheese, hops, esculent roots and plants, flax and hemp, are rais-
in immense quantities in New Hampshire; which likewise pro-
es great plenty of beef, pork, mutton, and poultry. Apples and
rs are the most common fruits in this state; but tree fruit of the
l quality cannot be raised in such a northern climate as this without
ticular attention. The uncultivated lands are covered with exten-
forests of pine, fir, cedar, oak, walnut, &c.

everal kinds of earths and clays are found in this state. It produces
and yellow ochres, steatites or soap-rock, the best lapis specularis,
ind of tale, commonly called isinglass; crystals, alum, vitriol, free-
ie, iron ore, and black lead. Some lead and copper ore have been
n; but iron is the only metal which has been wrought to any ad-
tage.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants in
w Hampshire, according to the census taken by order of congress in
0, was 141,885. In 1767, the number was estimated at 52,700. The
le of this state is considerable, though it is not to be ranked among
great commercial states. Its exports consist of lumber, ship-timber,
ale-oil, flax-seed, live-stock, beef, pork, Indian corn, pot and pearl-
es, &c. In 1790, there belonged to Piscataqua 33 vessels above
tons, and 50 under that burden. The value of the exports from that
t in 1793 amounted to 198,197 dollars. The bank of Hampshire
established in 1792, with a capital of 60,000 dollars: by an act
ssembly the stock-holders can increase it to 200,000 dollars in spe-
and 100,000 dollars in any other estate.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The only college in this state is at
nover, called Dartmouth-college, which is amply endowed with
ls, and is in a flourishing situation. The principal academies are
se of Exeter, New Ipswich, Atkinson, and Amherst.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portsmouth is the metropolis, and the largest town
New Hampshire. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent,
ing a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden, and being
well defended against storms by the land that ships may securely
there in any season of the year. Concord is a very flourishing
n, pleasantly situated on the Merrimack river. The legislature of late
e commonly held their sessions here; and, from its central situation
a thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent
of government.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This state first began to be settled
ut the year 1629, and was erected into a separate government in the
1679, but it seems afterwards to have been under the same gover-
with Massachusetts; because New Hampshire complained to the
in council against the joint-governor, relative to the boundaries be-
en the two colonies, and, on hearing the complaint, a separate go-
ment was appointed in 1740. According to its present constitu-
, the legislative power, as in the other United States, resides in a se-
and house of representatives, which together are here styled the
eral court, and the supreme executive authority is vested in a go-
or and council, the latter consisting of five members.

# MASSACHUSETTS, INCLUDING THE DISTRICT OF MAINE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 150<br>Breadth 60 | between | 64-57 and 73-38 west longitude<br>41-13 and 58-15 north latitude | 49,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] MASSACHUSETTS, which, with the district of Maine, constitutes one of the United States of America, is bounded to the North by Vermont and New Hampshire; on the East, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the South, by the Atlantic, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; and on the West, by New York.

This state is divided into seventeen counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Suffolk | BOSTON (42-23 N. lat. 70-59 W. long.) |
| Norfolk | Dedham |
| Essex | Salem |
| Middlesex | Charles-town |
| Hampshire | Northampton |
| Worcester | Worcester |
| Plymouth | Plymouth |
| Barnstable | Barnstable |
| Duke's county | Edgarton |
| Nantucket | Nantucket |
| Bristol | Taunton |
| Berkshire | Stockbridge. |
| District of MAINE. | |
| York | York |
| Cumberland | Portland |
| Lincoln | Pownalborough |
| Hancock | Hancock |
| Washington | Machias. |

RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, AND ISLANDS.] The country is well watered by a number of small rivers, of which the principal are Mystic and Charles rivers. The chief bays are Massachusetts, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, and Barnstable; the most remarkable capes, Ann, Cod, Malabar, Poge, and Gay Head: the principal islands, Plumb Island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Elizabeth islands, and numerous small ones in Boston Bay.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is similar to that of the other northern states. In the district of Maine the heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter extremely severe. In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil from very good to very bad; and capable of yielding in abundance all the different productions common to the climate: such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field-beans and peas, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c.

Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state; as likewise copper ore, black lead, pipe-maker's clay, yellow and red

:hre, alum, and slate. Several mineral springs have been found in dif-
:rent parts of the country.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The number of habitants in Massachusetts was in 1790, 378,787. This is the only ate in the union in which there are no slaves: slavery was abolished y the legislature some years ago. This state, including the district of laine, owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any :her of the states; and more than one third part of the whole that be-ngs to the United States. Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in rrying on the fisheries, 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,500 trading with almost all parts of the world. Pot and pearl-ashes, aves, flax-seed, and bees-wax, are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in :mittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East In-ies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, and candles, are carried to the Vest Indies for their produce; and the two first articles, fish and oil, to rance, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, and fruits, to Nova :otia and New Brunswic; hats, sadlery, cabinet-work, men's and wo-en's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, and cheese, to the uthern states. The value of exports in the year 1791 was 2,445,975 ollars, and in 1794, 5,380,703 dollars. Great quantities of nails are ade in this state. The machine invented by Caleb Leach, of Ply-outh, will cut and head 5000 nails in a day, under the direction of a outh of either sex. There is also a machine for cutting nails at New-ury-port, invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins, which will turn out *two undred thousand* nails in a day. The nails are said to have a decided periority over those of English manufacture, and are sold 20 per ent. cheaper. There are in this state upwards of twenty paper-mills, hich make more than 70,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapping-aper annually. There were, in 1792, 62 distilleries, which distilled one year from foreign materials 1,900,000 gallons. There are several uff, oil, chocolate, and powder-mills; there are indeed few articles hich are essentially necessary, and minister to the comfort and conve-ience of life, that are not manufactured in this state.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] There is no established religion in lassachusetts, but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise f its religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

In May 1780, the council and house of representatives of Massachu-tts passed an act for incorporating and establishing a society for the ultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled the merican Academy of Arts and Sciences. The first members were amed in the act, and never were to be more than two hundred, nor ss than forty. There is likewise a university at Cambridge, four miles est of Boston, the college buildings of which are four in number; and amed Harvard, Hollis, and Massachusetts Halls, and Holden Chapel. his university generally has from 140 to 200 students; and as to its brary, philosophical apparatus, and professorships, is at present the first terary institution on this continent. It takes its date from the year 38, seven years after the first settlement in the township, then called ewtown.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boston is the capital of this state, and the largest wn in New England, and the third in size and rank in the United tates. It is built on a peninsula of irregular form, at the bottom of lassachusetts Bay, and is joined to the main-land by an isthmus at the uth-end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth; the oadest part is 726 yards. In 1790, it contained 2376 dwelling-houses

and 18,038 inhabitants; but the increase has been very considerable since. It contains nineteen edifices for public worship, of which nine are for congregationalists, three for episcopalians, and two for baptists; the friends, Roman-catholics, methodists, sandemonians, and universalians, have one each. There are also seven free-schools, besides a great number of private schools. The harbour is capacious enough for 500 vessels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The wharfs and quays in Boston are about eighty in number, and very convenient for vessels. Long Wharf, or Boston Pier, in particular, extends from the bottom of State-street 1743 feet into the harbour, in a straight line. The breadth is 104 feet. At the end are 17 feet of water at ebb-tide. Long Wharf is covered on the north side with large and commodious warehouses, and in every respect exceeds any thing of the kind in the United States. Charles river and West Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to Boston, and both are on Charles river, which mingles its waters with those of Mystic river, in Boston harbour. Charles river bridge connects Boston with Charles-town in Middlesex county, and is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers. West Boston is 3483 feet long, stands on 180 piers, and exceeds the other as much in elegance as in length. The view of the town, as it is approached from the sea, is truly beautiful and picturesque. It lies in a circular and pleasingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with spires, above which the monument of Beacon hill rises pre-eminent: on its top is a gilt eagle bearing the arms of the Union, and on the base of the column are inscriptions commemorating some of the most remarkable events of the late war. The town is governed by nine select men, chosen at an annual meeting in March, when twelve overseers, twelve constables, and some other officers are chosen. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city; but this measure, not according with the democratic spirit of the people, has as yet failed.

Salem is the second town in this state. It contained in 1790, 925 houses, and 7921 inhabitants. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort.

Plymouth was the first town built in New England, and peopled principally by the descendants of the first settlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774 from the shore to a square in the centre of the town, where it remains as a monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Portland is the capital of the district of Maine. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. In 1795 a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon, were erected for its defence.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] An account of the first settlement and early history of Massachusetts has already been given under the general head of New England. In consequence of the revolt of the American colonies from the authority of Great Britain (of the origin and progress of which an account has been given in another place,) on the 25th of July, 1776, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American Congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town.

A constitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the stitution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furnish the dividuals who compose it, with the power of enjoying, in safety and anquillity, their natural rights, and the blessings of life; and that, henever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their prosperity and happiness. They expressed their gratitude to the Great egislator of the universe, for having afforded them, in the course his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without aud, violence, or surprise, of entering into an original, explicit, and lemn compact with each other; and of forming a new constitution of vil government for themselves and their posterity. They declared at it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in society, publy, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no bject should be hurt, molested, or restrained in his person, liberty, or tate, for worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable the dictates of his own conscience, or for his religious profession or ntiments, provided he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct hers in their religious worship.

It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and her bodies politic, or religious societies, should, at all times, have the clusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting ith them for their support and maintenance. That all moneys paid the subject to the support of public worship, and of the public achers, should, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the support of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious sect or demination, provided there were any on whose instructions he attended; otherwise it might be paid towards the support of the teacher teachers of the parish or precinct in which the said moneys should be ised. That every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves aceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be ually under the protection of the law; and that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another should ever be established law.

It was likewise declared, that as all power resided originally in the ople, and was derived from them, the several magistrates and officers government vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no subject should be arrested, or deprived his property or privileges, but by the judgment of his peers, or the w of the land. That the legislature should not make any law that ould subject any person to a capital or infamous punishment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by ry. That the liberty of the press is essential to the security of freedom in a state; and that it ought not, therefore, to be restrained in at commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep and bear ms for the common defence; but that, as in times of peace armies are ngerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conent of the legislature; and that the military power should always be ld in exact subordination to the civil authority.

The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate, and a house of

representatives, which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people: electors must be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or personal estate to the value of sixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate must have resided in the state seven years, and during that time have been seised of a freehold of one thousand pounds. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a freehold to the value of three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seised therein of freehold estate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been possessed of personal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the persons returned as senators and counsellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected, by joint ballot of both houses, for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor-general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

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# RHODE ISLAND.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 47<br>Breadth 37 | between | 41-26 and 42-10 north lat.<br>71-17 and 71-40 west lon. | 1,300 |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] RHODE ISLAND and Providence Plantations, which together form the smallest of the United States, are bounded on the North and East by Massachusetts; on the South by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the West by Connecticut. This state is divided into the five following counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Newport..... | Newport |
| Providence ..... | Providence |
| Washington ..... | South Kingston |
| Bristol..... ..... | Bristol |
| Kent ..... | |

ISLANDS, HARBOURS, AND RIVERS.] Narraganset bay contains several fertile islands; the principal of which are, Rhode Island, Cannonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog Islands. Block Island is the southernmost land belonging to the state. Rhode Island, from which the state takes its name, is about fifteen miles in length, and about three and a half broad, on an average. The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol. This state is intersected in all directions by rivers; the chief of which are Providence and Taunton rivers, which fall into Narraganset Bay.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Rhode Island is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the state, are milder than in the inland country; the air being softened by a sea

apour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, espe-ally in Rhode Island; where the extreme heats, which prevails in her parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from e sea. This state produces rye, barley, oats, and in some parts, wheat, fficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, d culinary roots and plants, in great abundance, and in perfection: der is made for exportation. The north-western parts of the state are t thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other arts. Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; ere is also a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with ad-stone. Abundance of lime-stone is also found here.

POPULATION, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The state of Rhode sland, in 1790, contained 68,825 persons, of whom 948 were slaves. he town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West ndies, and to different parts of the United States; but by far the reatest part of the commerce of Rhode Island is at present carried on y the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence, which had, in 791, 129 sail of vessels, containing 11,942 tons. The exports from his state are, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, nions, butter cheese, barley, grain, spirits, cotton and linen goods. The imports consist of European and West Indian goods, and log-wood rom the Bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear an-ually at the different ports in the state. The amount of exports from his state to foreign countries for one year, ending Sept. 30, 1791, was 70,131 dollars; and in 1794, 954-573 dollars. The inhabitants of his state are rapidly improving in manufactures. A cotton manufac-ory has been erected at Providence. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, elvets, &c. are here manufactured, and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow-cloth are made in different parts of his state for exportation; but the most considerable manufactures here re those of iron; such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail-rods, and nails, mplements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils; he iron-work of shipping, anchors, and bells.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Liberty of conscience has been in-iolably maintained in this state, ever since its first settlement. So ittle has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract etwen a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) s of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different ects have ever been found here; and that the sabbath, and all religious stitutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the ew England states.

A college called Rhode Island College, is established at Providence. is a spacious edifice, and contains upwards of sixty students. It has library, containing nearly 3000 volumes, and a valuable philosophical paratus.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in the state of Rhode Island e, Providence and Newport. The former is situated at the head of arraganset bay, on both sides of Providence river, over which is a idge 160 feet long and 22 wide. It is a large and handsome town, ntaining several elegant buildings, and about 6,400 inhabitants.

Newport is situated at the south-west end of Rhode Island. The rbour (which is one of the finest in the world) spreads westward be-re the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may chor in it, and ride in perfect security. Newport contains about 00 houses.

Connecticut river. Mr. Haynes and Mr. Hooker left Massachusetts bay in 1634, and settled at Hartford. The following year, Mr. Eaton and Mr. Davenport seated themselves at New Haven. In 1644 the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lord Say and Seal and lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600l. Connecticut and New Haven continued two distinct governments for many years. At length, John Winthrop, esq. who had been chosen governor of Connecticut, was employed to solicit a royal charter. In 1662, Charles II. granted a charter, constituting the two colonies for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of the governor and company of Connecticut. New Haven took the affair ill; but in 1665 all difficulties were amicably adjusted, and this charter still continues to be the basis of their government.

The supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the general assembly. The governor, deputy-governor, and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Tuesdays of May and October. The general assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, deputy-governor, and assistants: the lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses.

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# NEW YORK.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 350<br>Breadth 300 | between | 40 and 45 north latitude<br>73 and 80 west longitude | 24,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the East and North-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-west by Canada.

This state, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the twenty-one following counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| NEW YORK..... | NEW YORK 40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. long. |
| Albany..... | Albany |
| Ulster ..... | Kingston |
| Duchess ..... | Poughkeepsie |
| Orange ..... | Orange |
| West Chester ..... | Bedford, White Plains |
| King's ..... | Flatbush, Brooklyn |
| Queen's ..... | Jamaica |

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Suffolk | East Hampton, Huntingdon |
| Richmond | Richmond |
| Washington | Salem |
| Columbia | Hudson, Kinderhook |
| Clinton | Platsburg |
| Montgomery | Johnstown |
| Ranselaer | Lansinburg |
| Ontario | Canadaque |
| Herkemer | German Flats |
| Otsego | Cooper's Town |
| Tioga | Chemango, Union Town |
| Saratoga | Saratoga |
| Onondago | None |

RIVERS.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk: e former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with eat variety of fish; on this the cities of New York and Albany are tuated.

The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is six hundred miles om New York. It is navigable, for sloops of eighty tons, to Albany, d for ships to Hudson. About sixty miles above New York the water comes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which ren- rs a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who e fond of angling. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the ohoes, the water of which is said to fall thirty feet perpendicular; ut, including the descent above, the fall is as much as sixty or seventy et, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] These are Cape May, on the east entrance of Delaware ver; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock oint, at the east end of Long Island.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the south New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The r is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of e country, resembling that of the other British American colonies, is w, flat, and marshy, towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, e eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become ge in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is ex- mely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and its, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ne with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York nds on the south-west end of York Island, which is twelve miles long, d near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the uth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a ble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards nada and the lakes. This city is in length above two miles, and its an breadth about a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a t and battery; in the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, ough irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops ing it. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned in 1790 at 33,131, descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the sur-

render of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province, in 1790, was numbered at 340,220, of whom 11,324 were slaves*.

The city of Albany contains about 6,000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town of the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich and extensive back country, and the store house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783†.

The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. It has been supposed by well informed gentlemen, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudson. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile and much thicker, and more extensively settled than the banks of Hudson‡. The commodities in which they trade, are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the logwood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l. Their exports from this state in 1791 amounted to 2,505,465 dollars; and in 1795 to 10,304,580 dollars; or above two millions sterling.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at least half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprise in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed, their local advantages are such, that they have grown rich without enterprise. Besides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large; and it requires much less ingenuity to raise one thousand bushels of wheat upon sixty acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon thirty acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have sixty acres of land to raise one thousand bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity and of the same quality upon the Hudson. If

* Morse's American Geography.
† Morse. ‡ Morse.

e preceding observations be just, improvements will keep pace with
)pulation and increasing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow,
)rovements in agriculture. This observation applies more parti-
ılarly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number
people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures,
z. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and
)ots, sadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathema-
:al and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their
uipment. A glass work and several iron works have been established*.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] It is ordained by the constitution
New York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profes-
)n and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever
allowed within that state to all mankind.

A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the
ar 1755; but, as the assembly was at that time divided into parties,
was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met
ith the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a pub-
seminary in so populous a city. It is now called Columbia College.
has about one hundred and forty students in the four classes, besides
edical students.

A college called Union College was established at Schenectady in
94, which has now about forty students in the four classes. Besides
ese there are dispersed in different parts of the state fourteen incor-
rated academies, containing in the whole as many as six or seven
ndred students. It is also provided that schools shall be established,
e, at least, in every district of four square miles.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the
st Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American
ast. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th
the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands.
continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it
)m them by right of conquest in 1664; and it was confirmed to the
glish by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not
g in our possession before they were divided into different pro-
ices. New York took that name from the king's brother, James
ke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of govern-
nt, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession
the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, and
)ecame a royal government. The king appointed the governor and
uncil; and the people, once in seven years, elected their representa-
es to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the
islature (answering to those of Great Britain) had power to make any
vs not repugnant to those of England: but, in order to their being
id, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.

By the constitution of the state of New York, established in 1777,
supreme legislative power is vested in two separate and distinct
dies of men; the one called "The Assembly of the State of New
rk," consisting of seventy members annually chosen by ballot; and
other, "The Senate of the State of New York," consisting of
enty-four, for four years, who together form the legislature, and meet
:e at least in every year for the dispatch of business. The supreme
:cutive power is vested in a governor, who continues in office three
ırs, assisted by four counsellors chosen by and from the senate.

* Morse's American Geography.

Every male inhabitant of full age, who shall possess a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor and the members of the senate are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the Judges, &c. are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

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# NEW JERSEY.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Square Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 160<br>Breadth 50 | between | 39 and 42 North lat.<br>74 and 76 West long. | 8,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the West and South-west by Delaware river and bay; on the South-east, and East by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound, which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's River on the North.

| *Districts.* | *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|---|
| East Division contains | Middlesex | Perth Amboy and New Brunswick |
| | Monmouth | Shrewsbury and Freehold |
| | Essex | Elizabeth and Newark |
| | Somerset | Boundbrook |
| | Bergen | Hakkensak |
| West Division contains | Burlington | BURLINGTON 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. long. |
| | Gloucester | Woodbury, and Gloucester |
| | Salem | Salem |
| | Cumberland | Hopewell, Bridgetown |
| | Cape May | None |
| | Hunterdon | TRENTON 40-15 N. lat. 74-15 W. long. |
| | Morris | Morristown |
| | Sussex | Newtown. |

RIVERS.] These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about seventy feet perpendicular, and the river there eighty yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the province is barren, sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection. In this state are several iron mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the present constitu-

on of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in the anner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any erson obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of y minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or is deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to no establishment of any one religious sect in this province in prefer- ice to another: and no protestant inhabitants are to be denied the en- yment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Prince- n, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are nerally between eighty and a hundred students here, who come from l parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. There another college at Brunswick, called Queen's College, founded a ttle before the war, and in considerable repute.

POPULATION, TRADE, MANUFACTURES.] In 1790, the number f inhabitants in New Jersey was 184,139, of whom 11,423 were ves. The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from ose two great commercial cities, New York on one side, and Phila- lphia on the other, though it wants not good ports of its own: manu- ctures here have hitherto been inconsiderable, if we except the arti- es of iron, nails, and leather. The iron manufacture is, of all others, e greatest source of wealth to the state. In Morris county alone are less than seven rich iron mines. In the whole state it is supposed ere is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, and as many of pig on, exclusive of hollow ware and various other castings, of which vast antities are made.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Trenton is the largest town in, and the metropolis , this state; where the legislature statedly meets, the supreme court ts, and most of the public offices are kept. It contains between two d three hundred houses, and about 2000 inhabitants.

Perth Amboy and Burlington were formerly the seats of government: e governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situated the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The rmer is as good a port as most on the continent, and the harbour is fe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New Jersey is part of that vast act of land, which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II. his brother James, duke of York; he sold it, for a valuable considera- on, to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received s present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of rsey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surren- er of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; ter which it became a royal government.

By the new Charter of Rights, established by the provincial congress, ly 2, 1776, the government of New Jersey is vested in a governor, gislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legisla- ve council are to be freeholders, and worth at least one thousand unds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assem- y to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty unds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, d for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legis- tive council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor d lieutenant governor to be chosen out of, and by, the assembly and

council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

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# PENNSYLVANIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 290<br>Breadth 156 | between | 74 and 81 West longitude<br>39 and 42 North latitude | 45,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West.

The state of PENNSYLVANIA contains twenty-three counties:

| *Counties.* | *Chief Towns.* |
|---|---|
| Philadelphia | PHILADELPHIA (N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.) |
| Chester | Chester |
| Bucks | Newtown |
| Berks | Reading |
| Northampton | Easton |
| Lancaster | Lancaster |
| York | York |
| Cumberland | Carlisle |
| Montgomery | Norriston |
| Dauphin | Louisburg |
| Luzerne | Wilksbarre |
| Northumberland | Sunbury |
| Franklin | Chamberstown |
| Huntingdon | Huntingdon |
| Westmoreland | Greensburg |
| Fayette | Union |
| Washington | Washington |
| Allegany | Pittsburg |
| Delaware | Chester |
| Mifflin | Lewiston |
| Bedford* | Bedford |
| Somerset | None |
| Lycoming | None |

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia. The Susquehanna and Schuylkill are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this state admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ

* This county was purchased from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established in 1771.

rom those of New-York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of his province. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the iver Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months f July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot; but the ountry is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in eneral, that in all parts of the United States, from New York to the outhern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four pecies, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from ome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they row, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, hey have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though he Indians from them make a sort of wine with which they regale hemselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these states, that owards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more orthern countries. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes ss compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less rviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

ANIMALS.] Deer are found in great numbers in Pennsylvania; here are also beavers, otters, racoons, and martins. Buffaloes rarely ross the Ohio, and elks seldom advance from the north. Panthers, ild cats, bears, foxes, and wolves, are not rare; the last do most mis-hief, especially in the winter; but the fur and skins of all are valuable. n the thick settlements, rabbits and squirrels are frequent; also musk-ats in marshes. Partridges are yet numerous, though the late hard inters have destroyed many. There are great numbers of wild tur-eys in the new settlements; pheasants and grouse are become scarce. igeons, ducks, and wild geese, are generally found in plenty in their roper seasons. Here are a great number of singing birds, as many migrate to this state from the north and south in certain seasons.

ORIGIN AND CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS.] The inha-itants of Pennsylvania are principally the descendants of English, Irish, nd Germans, with some Scotch, Welsh, Swedes, and a few Dutch. here are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when oung or middle aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of nglish extraction, and compose about one third of the inhabitants. hey live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Chester, hiladelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presby-rians, but some are Roman Catholics. The Germans compose about ne-quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They consist of Luthe-ns, who are the most numerous sect; Calvinists, or Reformed Church; loravians, Roman Catholics, Mennonists, Tunkers, and Zwingfelters, ho are a species of Quakers. These are all distinguished for their mperance, industry, and economy. The Baptists, except the Men-onists and Tunker Baptists, are chiefly descended of emigrants from Vales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the ational prejudices, the manners, customs, religions, and political senti-ents of all these will form the Pennsylvanian character.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabi-nts of Pennsylvania in 1790 amounted to 434,373, including 3,737 ves; or about ten for every square mile.

The commerce of Pennsylvania is very flourishing. It is principally rried on from Philadelphia; and there are few commercial ports in e world where ships from Philadelphia may not be found in some sea-

son of the year. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1784 was 1910, and, in 1795, 1620. The clearances in the latter year were 1789. It is not mentioned, however, how many of these were coasting vessels. The number of vessels built in 1795 was 31, of which 23 were ships and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia shipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings. The value of exports from the State of Pennsylvania in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 3,436,092 dollars: and, in 1795, 11,518,260 dollars. The existing war has occasioned some extraordinary articles in the exportation of late; coffee and other commodities having been carried to Philadelphia, and thence to Hamburgh, as neutral ports.

The manufactures of this state are of numerous kinds. Iron-works are of long standing, and their products increase in quantity, and improve in quality. There are also improving manufactures of leather, paper, cotton, gun-powder, copper, lead, tin, and earthen-ware.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Liberty of conscience is allowed in this state in its fullest extent. The proportions in which the several different sects prevail may be estimated from the number of congregations in Pennsylvania, as given by Dr. Morse, viz. Presbyterians, 88; German Calvinists, 84; nearly 84 of German Lutherans; Friends, or Quakers, 54; Episcopalians, 26; Baptists, 15; Roman Catholics, 11; Scotch Presbyterians, 8; Free Quakers, 1; Universalists, 1; Covenanters, 1; Methodists, 3 or 4; and a Jewish synagogue; the whole amounting to 384.

There is a university at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carlisle and Lancaster. The Episcopalians have an academy at York-town, in York county. There are also academies at German-town, at Pittsburg, at Washington, at Allen's-town, and other places: these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals. The legislature have also reserved 60,000 acres of the public lands for public schools. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have academies at Bethlehem and Nazareth, on the best establishment of any schools perhaps in America. The literary, humane, and other useful societies are more numerous and flourishing in Pennsylvania than in any of the sixteen states. Among these is one which deserves a particular notice, which is the *American Philosophical Society*, held at Philadelphia. This society was formed, January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time, and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purpose which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the common-wealth of Pennsylvania on the 15th of March 1780. This society has published two very valuable volumes of their Transactions; one in 1771, and the other in 1786. In 1771 it consisted of nearly 300 members, and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Pennsylvania contains several very considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburg. But the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, eclipses the rest, and merits particular attention. It was built after the plan of the famous William Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated about 120 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river; and 55 or 60 in the south-eastward direction. The ground-plot of the city is an oblong square about one mile from north to south, and two from east

west; lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence, where the Delaware is a mile broad. The city is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, which extended from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, and were crossed by twenty-three others running north and south. The number of squares formed by these streets, in the original plan, was 184; but as several of them have lately been intersected by new streets, their number now amounts to 304; and several of these are again intersected by lanes and alleys. Market-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city, from river to river; and near the middle is intersected by Broad-street, 113 feet wide, running nearly north and south. The other streets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-street, which is 65 feet. Most of the city is well paved with foot-paths of brick, furnished with common sewers and gutters, so that the streets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houses in the city and suburbs are generally of brick, three stories high, in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. In 1794 there were 9000 houses in this city, and 400 which were building; and the present number of inhabitants may be estimated at about 55,000. Philadelphia contains 27 places of public worship, belonging to different sects. The state-house is a magnificent building, erected in 1735. In 1787 an elegant court-house, or town hall, was built on the left of the state-house, and, on the right, a philosophical hall. Here likewise is a public observatory, and several other public buildings. This city is governed by a mayor, recorder, fifteen aldermen, and thirty common-council men, according to its present charter, granted in the year 1789. A malignant fever raged here in 1793, which in the course of August and three succeeding months carried off 4031 of the inhabitants; and this fatal distemper for several years returned annually.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court-solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine Mr. Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilised nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the Quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between

man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations: instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and oldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and, even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met in September 1774: and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778 the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

In 1776 the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new constitution of government for that colony. According to the actual constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common pleas, and a court of quarter-sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives, and a fourth part of the senate, annually. The number of representatives must not be less than sixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a fourth, nor greater than a third part of the number of representatives. The electors of the magistrates must have attained the age of twenty-one, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and, the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years residence, are required in senators: and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided by lot into four classes; and the seats of one class vacated and re-filled yearly.

# DELAWARE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 92<br>Breadth 24 | between | 38 29 and 39 54 north latitude<br>75 2 and 75 48 west longitude | 2000. |

BOUNDARIES.] DELAWARE is bounded on the East by the river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the North, by Pennsylvania; and on the South and West, by Maryland. It is divided into the three following counties:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Newcastle..... | Newcastle, Wilmington |
| Kent ..... | Dover |
| Sussex ..... | Lewes |

RIVERS.] In the southern and western parts of this state spring the head waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeak bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country for vessels of fifty or sixty tons.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air is in general healthy; but in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water, it is less salubrious. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes. There are few minerals in this state, except iron: large quantities of bog iron ore, very fit for castings, are found in Sussex county, among the branches of Nanticoke river.

POPULATION, TRADE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The number of inhabitants in Delaware in 1790 was 59,094, of whom 887 were slaves. The staple commodity of this state is wheat, which is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. Besides wheat and flour, timber and various other articles are exported from Delaware. The amount of exports from this state, in the year 1795, was 158,041 dollars. Among other branches of industry exercised in and near Wilmington are a cotton manufactory, and a bolting manufactory. In the county of Newcastle are several fulling-mills, two snuff-mills, one slitting mill, four paper-mills, and sixty mills for grinding grain, all turned by water.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] In this state there are a variety of religious denominations. Of the Presbyterian sect there are 24 churches; of the Episcopal, 14; of the Baptists, 7; of the Methodists, a considerable number. Besides these there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States.

There is no college in this state. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legislature, in January 1796, passed an act to create a fund for the establishment of schools throughout the state.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the metropolis, though it contains but about a hundred houses; but Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state, containing 600 houses, and 3000 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, similar to Philadelphia.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] Settlements were made here by the Dutch about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their settlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York; and William Penn united them to his government by purchase. They were afterwards separated in some measure from Pennsylvania, and denominated the *Three Lower Counties*. They had their own assemblies, but the governor of Pennsylvania used to attend, as he did in his own proper government. At the late revolution, the three counties were erected into a sovereign state, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine in number, three from each county; and the representatives twenty-seven. The former must be twenty-seven years old, and the latter twenty-four; and senators must have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and personal estate to the value of one thousand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years in six. In other particulars the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania.

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# MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 134<br>Breadth 110 | between | 75 and 80 west longitude<br>38 and 40 north latitude | 14,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by the Delaware state, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the West.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, viz. 1. the eastern; and, 2. the western division.

| Divisions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The East Division contains the counties of ..... | Worcester..... | Princess Anne |
| | Somerset ..... | Snow-Hill |
| | Dorset ..... | Dorset, or Dorchester |
| | Talbot ..... | Oxford |
| | Cecil ..... | |
| | Queen Anne's ..... | Queen's Town |
| | Kent ..... | Chester |
| | Caroline ..... | Danton |

| Divisions. | Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The West Division contains ..... | St. Mary's..... | St. Mary |
| | Charles..... | Bristol |
| | Prince George..... | Masterkout |
| | Calvert..... | Abington |
| | Ann Arundel ..... | ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39. |
| | Baltimore..... | Baltimore |
| | Frederic ..... | Frederic Town |
| | Washington..... | Elizabeth Town |
| | Montgomery ..... | |
| | Hartford ..... | |
| | Allegany ..... | Cumberland |

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoke, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, and Sassafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE. In these particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild, and agreeably suited to agricultural productions and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the staple commodities of that country), hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, amounting in 1790 to 319,728, of whom 103,036 are slaves; which is nearly 34 for every square mile.

The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and corn-beans, pork, and flax-seed in small quantities: and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars, and other West-India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.—The total amount of exports from Baltimore in 1790 was 2,027,777 dollars, and in 1795, 5,811,379 dollars. In the year 1791 the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 bushels.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The Roman Catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the most numerous religious sect. Besides these there are Protestants, Episcopalians, English, Scotch and Irish Presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists, Mennonists, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conscience. The seminaries of learning are as follow: Washington Academy, in Somerset county, which was instituted by law in 1779. Washington College, instituted at Chester town in Kent county in 1782. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution, of 1250l. a year currency. St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to which a permanent fund is assigned of 75l. a year. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is

now prepared for it. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by the name of "The university of Maryland," whereof the governor of the state for the time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor. The Roman-catholics have also erected a college at George town on Patowmac river for the promotion of general literature. In 1785 the Methodists instituted a college at Abington in Hartford county, by the name of Cokesbury College.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, is a small but well situated town upon the river Patuxent It was formerly called Severn, which name, in the year 1694, was, by an act of the assembly of Maryland, changed into Annapolis. It is situated on a peninsula formed by the river, and two small creeks, and affords a beautiful prospect of Chesapeak bay, and the eastern shore beyond it. This city is of little note in the commercial world; but is the wealthiest town of its size in the United States. The houses, about three hundred in number, are spacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The state-house is the noblest building of the kind in the Union. It stands in the centre of the city, from which point the streets diverge in every direction like radii.

Baltimore is the largest town in the State of Maryland: in size it is the fourth, and in commerce, the fifth in rank in the United States. It is situated on the north side of Patapsco river, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeak. The town is built around what is called the bason, reckoned one of the finest harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the town and precincts in 1791 was 13,503, including 1255 slaves, and they must have greatly increased since.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they, however, were peopled by Protestants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Papists were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman Catholics, Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent in great favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of the English. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with Lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price, from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them, by ill-grounded reports, such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to

erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities: the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England, of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But, during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters; the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expense.

At the revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now vested in a governor, senate of fifteen, and house of delegates; all which are to be chosen annually. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates; and cannot continue in office longer than three years successively. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

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# VIRGINIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 446<br>Breadth 224 | between | 75 and 83 West lon.<br>36 and 40 North lat. | 70,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the East; by North Carolina, on the South; and by Kentucky, on the West.

Virginia is divided into 82 counties, as follows:

| Situation. | Counties. | Situation. | Counties. |
|---|---|---|---|
| West of the Blue Ridge. | Ohio<br>Monongalia<br>Washington<br>Montgomery<br>Wythe | Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters. | Loudoun<br>Fauquier<br>Culpepper<br>Spotsylvania<br>Orange |

| Situation. | Counties. | Situation. | Counties. |
|---|---|---|---|
| West of the Blue Ridge. | Botetourt, Green-briar, Kanawa, Hampshire, Berkley, Frederick, Shenandoah, Rockingham, Augusta, Rockbridge | Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters. | Louisa, Goochland, Flavinia, Albemarle, Amherst, Buckingham, Bedford, Henry, Pittsylvania, Halifax |
| Between the Blue Ridge and Tide-Waters. | Charlotte, Prince Edward, Cumberland, Powhatan, Amelia, Nottaway, Lunenburgh, Mecklenburgh, Brunswick | Between York and Rappahannoc rivers. | Caroline, King William, King & Queen, Essex, Middlesex, Gloucester, Fairfax |
| Between James river and Carolina. | Greensville, Dinwiddie, Chesterfield, Prince George, Surry, Sussex, Southampton, Isle of Wight, Nansemond, Norfolk, Princess Ann | Between Rappahannock and Patowmack rivers. | Prince William, Stafford, King George, Richmond, Westmoreland, Northumberld. Lancaster |
| Between James and York rivers. | Henrico, Hanover, New Kent, Charles City, James City, Williamsburgh, York, Warwick, Elizabeth City | Eastern shore | Accomac, Northampton |
| | | The following are new Counties. | Campbell, Franklin, Harrison, Randolph, Hardy, Pendleton, Russell*. |

CAPES, BAYS AND RIVERS.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeak, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and the Patowmac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country

* Morse, vol. i. pp. 532, 533, 534.

n the world of all others of the most convenient navigation. It has een observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every lanter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore before ou can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees which cover he soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the change is sudden and violent. Their winter frosts come on without the least warning. To a warm day there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June the heat increases; and the summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease or increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot: in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the sea-shore and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness of the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees, and no underwood or bushes grow beneath; so that people travel with ease through the forests on horseback, under a fine shade to defend them from the sun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneously in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake root and ginseng, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco-plant, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption, but for exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia and the Southern Colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; their fatte

pullets at sixpence a-piece; chickens at three or four shillings a dozen; geese at ten-pence; and turkeys at eighteen-pence a-piece. But fish and wild-fowl are still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal called the opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix in his History of Canada. It is about the size of a cat; and, besides the belly, common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which discovers a great number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang, like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow to a certain bulk and weight; when they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking-bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. But it is to be observed that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that the government, though nominally republican, is in fact oligarchal or aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this state. The young men, observes one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockeys. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dexterous in manœuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gambling and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary on the public road there is a billiard table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public papers*. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery.

* A traveller through Virginia observes: Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburgh; and I was witness to five in the course of my travels from that to Port-Royal.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The inhabitants of Virginia amount-
l, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610, of which 292,627 were
groes. The trade of Virginia consists principally in tobacco, and dif-
rent kinds of grain. In 1790, about 40,000 hogsheads of tobacco were
xported; but its culture has since declined, and that of wheat taken
lace. The greatest quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country
as 70,000 hogsheads in the year 1758. The exports from this state, in
ie year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars, and in 1796 to 5,268,615
ollars.

RELIGION AND COLLEGES.] The present denominations of Christi-
ns in Virginia are, Presbyterians, who are most numerous; Espiscopa-
ans, Baptists, and Methodists. The first settlers were Episcopalians.
here is a college at Williamsburgh, founded by King William, and
alled William and Mary college. That monarch gave two thousand
ounds towards building it, and twenty thousand acres of land, with
ower to purchase and hold lands to the value of two thousand pounds a
ear, and a duty of a penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the
ther plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other of-
cers, who are always appointed by the governors, or visitors. The aca-
emy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the
ame of Hampden Sidney college. There are besides a number of aca-
emies in different parts of Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Nor-
lk, one at Hanover, and others in other places.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Virginia is not divided into townships, nor are
iereany large towns, owing probably to the intersection of the country
y navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabit-
nts, and prevent the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance.
he principal towns are, Richmond the capital, Williamsburgh, and
orfolk. Richmond contains between 400 and 500 houses, and about
000 inhabitants. Here is a large state-house, or capitol, lately erected
n a hill, which commands an extensive prospect of the lower part of
ie town, the river, and the adjacent country. Williamsburgh was the
at of government till the year 1780. It contains about 100 houses,
d about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets,
ith a pleasant square in the centre, of about ten acres, through which
ns the principal street, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet
ide. Norfolk is the most considerable commercial town in Virginia.
he harbour is safe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300
ips. In 1790 the number of inhabitants in Norfolk was 2959, in-
uding 1294 slaves.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This is the first country which the
nglish planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but
all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the dis-
very of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern con-
ient of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No at-
mpts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of Queen Eliza-
th. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got
gether a company, which was composed of several persons of dis-
ction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade
d settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen
zabeth he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth cen-
ry, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any
oved successful. The three first companies who sailed to Virginia
rished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians.
ie fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and being
indled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of

living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But, in the mouth of Chesapeak Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled by the decayed state of his health, to return to England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with sir Thomas Gates, sir George Sommers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His death, however, restored peace and unanimity.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was subject to a governor and council appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower houses of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled Honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly, acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment: it sometimes acted as a court of chancery.

The present government of this province, as settled, in convention at Williamsburgh, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments be separate and distinct; that the house of delegates be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta, and one representative for the city of Williamsburgh and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of twenty

four members, also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into twenty districts. The executive is a governor and privy council, of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the delegates to congress, the judges, and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the governor and council.

# KENTUCKY.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 250, Breadth 200 | between | 81 and 89 West longitude. 36 and 39 North latitude. | 50,000. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North West by the river Ohio; West, by Cumberland river; South, by North Carolina; East, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it meets the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into the following fourteen:

| Counties. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| Jefferson, at the falls of the Ohio | Louisville |
| Fayette | Lexington |
| Bourbon | Bourbon |
| Mercer | Harodsburgh |
| Nelson | Bardstown |
| Maddison | Milford |
| Lincoln | |
| Woodford | Versailles |
| Mason | Washington |
| Washington | |
| Clarke | Winchester |
| Scott | |
| Logan | |
| Franklin | Frankfort |

RIVERS, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The Ohio bounds Kentucky in its whole length. This state is watered by many rivers, and the greatest part of the soil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part in America. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. The rivers abound in the finest fish; salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fish. The paroquet is common here; as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume; the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a surprising noise, like a man in distress. The natural curiosities of this country are astonishing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine lime-stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. There are three springs or

ponds of bitumen near Green River, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the finest oil*. There are many alum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which, when refined, is equal to any in the world. At a salt spring near the Ohio river very large bones have been found, far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America: the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter said it could not be the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in these regions, (where none such now exist) are very difficult questions, and variously resolved. The variety of conjectures only serves to show the futility of all.

The Mississippi and Ohio are the keys to the northern parts of the western continent. The usual route to Kentucky is from Philadelphia, or Baltimore, by the way of Pittsburgh. The distance from the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans, which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line is 856 by water. The mouth empties itself by several channels into the Gulf of Mexico.

POPULATION.] An idea may be formed of the astonishing emigration to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops stationed at Fort Harmar, at the mouth of Muskingum.

From the 10th of October 1786, to the 12th of May 1787, 177 boats, containing 2689 souls, 1333 horses, 766 cattle, 112 waggons, and two phaetons, besides a very considerable number that passed in the night unobserved.

The population of this state in 1790 was 73,677. It is asserted that upwards of 20,000 persons emigrated hither in the year 1787. These people, collected from different states, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form a uniform national character. Among the settlers there are many gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families from several of the states; and they are in general more regular than people who settle new countries.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns; the principal are, Lexington, Louisville, and Washington. Lexington contains about 250 houses, and about 2000 inhabitants.

RELIGION.] The Baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

HISTORY AND CONSTITUTION.] The history of this State is the same with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1792, when it was erected into an independent State. By the constitution of this State, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be less than forty: and the senate, at first consisting of eleven, is to increase with the house of representatives, in the ratio of one to four.

* Morse's American Geography, p. 407.

# NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 450<br>Breadth 180 | between | 76 and 83 West longitude<br>34 and 37 North latitude | 34,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; by South Carolina on the South; and the State of Tenessee on the West.

North Carolina is divided into eight districts, in which are 58 counties.

| Districts. | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Edenton, 9 Counties. | Chowan, Currituck, Cambden, Pasquetank, Perquimins, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrelot |
| Willmington, 5 Counties. | New Hanover, Brunswick, Duplin, Bladen, Onslow |
| Newbern, 10 Counties. | Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Johnson, Pitt, Glasgow, Lenoir, Wayne, Hyde, Jones |

The above three districts are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South Carolina. They are called Eastern districts.

| Districts. | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Halifax, 7 Counties. | Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Nash |
| Hillsborough, 7 Counties. | Orange, Chatham, Granville, Person, Caswell, Wake, Randolph |
| Salisbury, 9 Counties. | Rowan, Cabarras, Mecklenburg, Rockingham, Iredell, Surry, Montgomery, Stokes, Guildford |
| Morgan, 5 Counties. | Burke, Rutherford, Lincoln, Wilkes, Buncomb |
| Fayette, 6 Counties. | Cumberland, Moore, Richmond, Robinson, Sampson, Anson |

Fayette, Hillsborough, and Halifax, are called middle districts, and Salisbury and Morgan western districts. These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole state west of the three maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.

RIVERS AND CAPES.] The principal rivers of North Carolina are the Chowan, and its branches, Roanoke, Tar, Neus, and Cape Fear, or Clarendon. Most of these and the smaller rivers have bars at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours except Cape Fear. The principal capes are, Cape Fear, Cape Look-out, and Cape Hatteras.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The western hilly parts of North Carolina are as healthy as any part of America; but in the flat country near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. North Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forests and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. The western hilly parts of the state are fertile, and full of springs and rivulets of pure water interspersed; through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak-land, of a black fertile soil. Sixty or eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as in South Carolina and Georgia. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country; Indian-corn, and pulse of all kinds, in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly; the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce 1000 pounds in the seeds, or 250 fit for manufacturing. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch-pine, which is a tall handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. The swamps abound with cypress and bay trees.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF INHABITANTS.] The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with, to all strangers, and especially to such as, by accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

Less attention and respect are paid to the women here than in those parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made a greater progress in the arts of civilised life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilisation, in the same proportion will respect for women be increased; so that the progress of civilisation in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

The North Carolinians are accused of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and industry; and it is said that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called *gouging**: but we have lately been informed, that in a particular county, where, at the court, twenty years

* The *delicate* and *entertaining diversion*, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus described. When two *boxers* are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sporting throng, while his poor eyeless antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune.

ago, a day seldom passed without ten or fifteen boxing-matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in North Carolina in 1790 was 393,751, of whom 100,571 were slaves.

A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry their produce to Charles-town, and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the state are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and some other articles; amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to 524,548 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern states.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The Methodists and Baptists are numerous and increasing in North Carolina; the Moravians have several flourishing settlements in the upper part of this state; and the Friends or Quakers have a settlement in New-Garden, in Guildford county, and several congregations at Pequimins and Pasquotank.

The general assembly of North Carolina, in 1789, passed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina. The general assembly, in December 1791, loaned 5,000l. to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. There is a very good academy at Warenton, another at Williamsborough, in Granville, and three or four others in the state of considerable note.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newbern is the largest town in North Carolina, and was formerly the residence of the governors. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, have each in their turns been the seat of the general assembly. Raleigh, situated near the centre of the state, has lately been established as the metropolis.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The history of North Carolina is less known than that of any other of the states. From the best accounts that history affords, the first permanent settlement in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuable consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown; and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its present limits established by an order of George II.

By the constitution of this state, which was ratified in December 1796, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a Senate and House of Commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the General Assembly. The Senate is composed of representatives, one from each county, chosen annually by ballot. The House of Commons consists of representatives chosen in the same way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

# SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 200, Breadth 125 | between | 32 and 35 North lat. 78 and 81 West long. | 20,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by North Carolina on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the East; and on the South and South-west by the Savannah river, and a branch of its head-waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this state from Georgia. South Carolina is divided into nine districts, in which are 38 counties, as follow:

| | Counties. | | Counties. |
|---|---|---|---|
| BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT. | Hilton Head, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewsbury | ORANGE DISTRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGEBURGH. | Lewisburg, Orange, Lexington, Winton |
| CHARLES-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLES-TOWN. W. long. 80-39. N. lat. 32-45. | Charles-town, Washington, Marion, Berkeley, Colleton, Bartholomew | CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George-town district. Chief town CAMDEN. | Clarendon, Richland, Fairfield, Lleremont, Lancaster, Kershaw, Salem |
| GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN. | Winyah, Williamsburg, Kingston, Liberty | NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, Chief town CAMBRIDGE. | Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Laurens |
| | | PINCKNEY DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKNEYVILLE. | York, Chester, Union, Spartanburgh |

CHERAWS DISTRICT, west of George-town district. Chief towns are GRENVILLE and CHATHAM. — Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darlington.

WASHINGTON DISTRICT. Chief town PINCKENSVILLE. — Pendleton, Greenville.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] South Carolina is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Edisto, Santee, Pedee, and their branches. The Santee is the largest river in the state. Those of a secondary size are the Wakkamaw, Black, Cooper, Ashepoo, and Combahee rivers. A canal of twenty-one miles in length, connecting Cooper and Santee rivers, is nearly completed, which it is estimated will cost 400,000 dollars; and another canal is soon to be begun, to unite the Edisto with the Ashley.

SEAS AND HARBOURS.] The only sea bordering on this, is the Atlantic Ocean, which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of any great burden cannot approach it, except in some few places. The principal harbours in South Carolina are Winyaw, or George-town, Charles-town, and Port-royal.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] The climate of South Carolina agrees in general with that of North Carolina and Virginia. The weather, as in all the

part of America, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to revisit the noon-day sun, so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter in Virginia, flourish in South Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. The salubrity of the air is different in different parts of the state. Along the sea-coast, bilious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cause of which is the low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The upper country, situated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. The soil of South Carolina may be divided into four kinds: first, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interspersed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth, but that of grass. These tracts are called *savannas*, constituting a second kind of soil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the swamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing, naturally, canes in great plenty, cypress bays, loblolly pines, &c. In these swamps rice is cultivated, which constitutes the staple commodity of the state. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, constitute the fourth kind of soil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine, and locust. On these lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally cultivated; and in the back country, likewise, they raise tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been made, it is well ascertained that olives, silk, and madder, may be as abundantly produced in South Carolina, and we may add in Georgia also, as in the south of France. There is little fruit in this state, especially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, chiefly sour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears, and peaches; apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern states; melons, especially water-melons, are raised here in great perfection.

Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and some few other hills, this country is like what is called the upper country,—is one extensive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hog-back mountains, 220 miles north-west of Charles-town. The elevation of these mountains above their base is 3840 feet, and above the sea-coast 4640. Their summit affords an extensive view of this state, North Carolina, and Georgia. The sea-coast is bordered with a chain of fine islands, the soil of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main land, and less suited to rice. The whole state, to the distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the sea, is low and level, almost without a pebble, and is little better than an unhealthy salt marsh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles distance from Charles-town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than on the flat sandy coast.

In South Carolina vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that

in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies; of the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat in the back parts yield a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed, it appears that the vegetable productions of this state are wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine-trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines, which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue in curing wounds; and another which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums.

South Carolina abounds with precious ores, such as gold, silver, lead, black-lead, copper, and iron; but it is the misfortune of those who direct their pursuits in search of them, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chemistry, and too frequently make use of improper menstruums in extracting the respective metals. There are likewise rock-crystals, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, crude alum, nitre, and vitriol. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these the three great staple commodities at present are the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charles-town, as well as the Indians, make canoes which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure boats. There are also a variety of medicinal roots; among others, the rattle-snake root, so famous amongst the Indians for the cure of poison; and the venereal root, which, under a vegetable regimen, will cure a confirmed lues.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in both the Carolinas they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously; to have 200 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forest; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in South Carolina, in 1790, was 249,073, including 107,094 slaves.

The little attention that has been paid to manufactures occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantity and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the state, except when there have been large importations of negroes. The principal articles exported from this state are rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, snake-root, and ginseng. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. In 1791, the exports from this state amounted to 1,693,267 dollars, and in 1792 to 5,998,492 dollars.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. They all agree to differ*. The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists. There are some episcopalians, but the presbyterians and independents are most numerous. The literature of this state is but at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies in Charles-town, one at Beaufort, on Port-Royal island, and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law, one at Charles-town, one at Winnsborough, in the district of Camden, and the other at Cambridge in the district of Ninety-six. The legislature, in their session in January 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the establishment of schools in the different parts of the state.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns of South Carolina are, Charles-town, George-town, Columbia, and Camden. Charles-town is by far the most considerable town on the sea-coast for an extent of 600 miles. It is the metropolis of South Carolina, and is admirably situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burden, loaded, from entering. The fortifications, which were strong, are now demolished; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 slaves. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were slaves. This city has often suffered much by fire; the last and most destructive happened in June 1796. The neighbourhood of Charles-town is beautiful beyond description.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congaree, just below the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers. It is now the seat of government; but the public offices have, in some measure been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charles-town.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The first English expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. None of them had success till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city called Charles-town, which was designed to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In time, however, the disputes between the church-of-England men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians; whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these

* Dr. Morse.

[illegible] wars, an act of parliament was passed [illegible] the immediate protection of the crown. [illegible] a recompence of about 24,000 l. to [illegible] and the constitution of this colony [illegible] from the royal colonies, was altered [illegible] to retain his seventh share, which [illegible] his family. For the more convenient [illegible] were divided into two districts, and [illegible] and from that time, peace [illegible] as well as with the Cherokees [illegible] began to breathe, and their [illegible]

[illegible] is vested in a governor, assistant [illegible] of one hundred and twenty-

---

## [illegible]

### [illegible]

| | | Square Miles |
|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] West long. [illegible] North lat. | 87,000 |

[illegible] BOUNDED by South Carolina [illegible] by the Atlantic Ocean [illegible] [illegible] the Mississippi as far [illegible] [illegible] and afterwards [illegible] [illegible] Upper and Lower,

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible] (N. lat. 32 [illegible]
(W. long. 24 [illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[

ISLANDS AND RIVERS.] The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Skidaway, Wassaw, Ossahaw, t. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, and Cumberland. The chief vers of Georgia are the Savannah, which separates it from South Ca-lina, the Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Turtle River, Little Sitilla, Great itilla, St. Mary's, and Apalichicola.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate of Georgia is extremely temperate: the winters there are very mild and pleasant. Snow seldom or never seen: nor is vegetation often prevented by severe osts. The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and ifferent improvements. The eastern part of the state, between the ountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a act of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and from 50 80 east and west, is level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of bout 40 or 50 miles from the sea-board or salt-marsh, the lands begin be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The ast chain of the Alleghany, or Apalachian mountains, which commence ith Kaats Kill, near Hudson River, in the state of New York, termiate in Georgia, sixty miles south of its northern boundary. From the ot of this mountain spreads a wide extended plain of the richest soil, nd in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of he productions of the south of Europe, and of the East Indies. Rice is t present the staple commodity of the state; tobacco, wheat, and indi-o, are the other great articles of produce. Besides these, the country ields cotton, silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and omegranates. Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state ith proper attention. The south-western parts of Georgia, and the arts of East and West Florida which lie adjoining, will probably, says Dr. Morse, become the vineyard of America. The forests consist of oak, iccory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

POPULATION AND TRADE.] The number of inhabitants in Georgia according to the census of 1790, amounted to 82,548 of whom 29,264 were slaves. The increase by emigration has been very considerable since.

The chief articles of export from Georgia are rice, tobacco, indigo, sago, timber, naval stores, leather, deer-skins, snake-root, myrtle, and bees-wax, corn, and live-stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 1000 to 1500 head, and some more. The value in sterling money of the exports of Georgia, in 1755, was £15,744.—in 1772, £121,677.—in 1790 value in dollars 491,472; and 1796, 950,158 dollars. In 1790, the tonnage employed in this state was 28,540, and the number of American seamen 11,225. In return for her exports, Georgia receives West India goods, teas, wines, clothing, and dry goods of all kinds: from the northern states, cheese, fish, potatoes, cyder, and shoes. The imports and exports are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is the place where the principal commercial business of the state is transacted.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The different religious sects in Georgia are presbyterians, episcopalians, baptists, and methodists. They have but few regular ministers among them.

The literature of this state, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan, which, if properly carried into effect, must be attended with great advantages. A college with ample and liberal endowments has been instituted at Louisville. There is also provision made for the in-

stitution of an academy in each county of the state to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendance and direction of a president and board of trustees, selected for their literary accomplishments from the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. This institution is denominated *The University of Georgia.* The funds for the support of literary institutions are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable; together with nearly 6,000l. sterling, in bonds, houses, and town lots in Augusta. Other public property, to the amount of 1,000l. in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building, and furnishing their respective academies.

The Rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan-house at Savannah, which, after his death, was converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry. The funds for its support are chiefly in rice plantations and negroes. On the death of the Countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitfield bequeathed this property, as trustee, the legislature, in the year 1792, passed a law, vesting it in 13 commissioners, with powers to carry the original intentions of Mr. Whitfield into execution; and in memory of the countess the seminary is styled Huntingdon College.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in Georgia, are Savannah, Augusta, and Louisville. Savannah, formerly the capital of the state, is commodiously situated both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles. Ships of 300 tons burden can lie within six yards of the town, and close to a steep bank, extending near a mile along the river side. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and contained, in 1787, 2,300 inhabitants. In the autumn of 1796 more than two-thirds of this town was consumed by fire.

Augusta, till lately the seat of government, is situated in a fertile plain on the south-west bank of the Savannah river, at a bend of the river, where it is near 500 yards broad. In 1787, it contained about 200 houses.

Louisville, now the metropolis of the state, is situated on the river Ogeechee, seventy miles from its mouth. The convention for the revisal of the constitution sat in this town in May 1795, and appointed the records to be removed, and the legislature to meet here in future.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when several public-spirited noblemen, and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide necessaries for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed, as they were, at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in

number and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissentions of all kinds sprang up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The government of Georgia is vested in a governor, executive council of twelve, and house of assembly of seventy-two representatives.

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# TENNESSEE.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 360<br>Breadth 105 | between | 81 and 91 West longitude.<br>35 and 36 30′ North latitude. |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED, North, by Kentucky, and part of Virginia; East, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald Mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; South, by South Carolina and Georgia; West, by the Mississippi*.

This extensive territory is divided into three districts; Washington, Hamilton, and Mero; and fourteen counties, as follow:

| | Counties. |
|---|---|
| Washington district | Washington<br>Sullivan<br>Greene<br>Carter<br>Hawkins |
| Hamilton district | Knox<br>Jefferson<br>Servier<br>Blount<br>Grainger |
| Mero district | Davidson<br>Sumner<br>Robertson<br>Montgomery |

The population, according to an estimate made in November, 1795, was 77,262.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee, and, absurdly, the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and pursues a course of about 1000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly sixty miles from its mouth.

The Cumberland mountains, in its whole extent from the great Kanhaway to the Tennessee, consist of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remark-

* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only have been yet purchased from the Indians.

able ledge of rocks, of about thirty miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

The *Enchanted Mountain*, about two miles south of Brass-town, is famed for the curiosities on its rocks. There are, in several rocks, a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made in snow or sand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each; one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One of these tracks was very large; the length of the feet sixteen inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One of the horse-tracks was of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches; perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What appears most in favour of their being the real tracks of the animals they represent, is the circumstance of the horses' feet having slipped several inches, and recovered again, and the figures having all the same direction, like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *lusus Naturæ*, the old dame never sported more seriously: if the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent design. If it be the work of art, it may be intended to perpetuate the remembrance of some remarkable event of war, or some battle fought there. The vast heaps of stones near the place, said to be *tombs* of warriors slain in battle, seem to favour the latter supposition. The texture of the rocks is soft: the part on which the sun had the greatest influence, and which was the most indurated, could easily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetic Nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which these figures were intended to commemorate.

ANIMALS.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the south branches of Cumberland river. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

COMMERCE.] This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer-skins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand commerce, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course, it is badly managed.

RELIGION.] The presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district. They have a presbytery, called the Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of twenty-three large congregations.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Knoxville is the seat of government in Tennessee. It is regularly laid out, in a flourishing situation, and enjoys a commo-

nication with every part of the United States by post. A college has been established here by government, called Blount college. The other principal towns are Nashville and Jonesborough.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government), as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians, before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced; and, in 1773, the country as far west as the long island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length, from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled.

In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form themselves into a body politic, by the name of the State of FRANKLAND; but differing among themselves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed, and being opposed by some leading persons in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1796, when a convention was held at Knoxville, and on the 6th of February the constitution of the State of Tennessee was signed by every member of it. Its principles promise to ensure the happiness and prosperity of the people.

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## TERRITORY NORTH-WEST OF THE OHIO.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 900<br>Breadth 700 | between | 37 and 50 north lat.<br>81 and 98 west lon. | 411,000 |

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] THIS extensive tract of country is bounded, North, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; East, by the lakes, and Pennsylvania; South, by the Ohio river; West, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contain 263,040,000 acres, of which 48,040,000 are water.

That part of this territory in which the Indian titles is extinguished, by being purchased from them, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into the following five counties:

| Counties. | When erected. | Counties. | When erected. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Washington | July 26, 1788 | Knox | June 20, 1790 |
| Hamilton | Jan. 2, 1790 | Wayne | 1796 |
| St. Clair | April 27, 1790 | | |

RIVERS.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large bateaux and barges to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhock-

ing resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties itself into the Mississippi, from the north-east, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] The lands on the various streams which fall into the Ohio are interspersed with all the variety of soil that conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people.

The sugar-maple is a most valuable tree. Any number of inhabitants may be constantly supplied with a sufficiency of sugar by preserving a few of these trees for the use of each family. One tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams, suitable for mills and other purposes, are interspersed, as if to prevent any deficiency of the conveniences of life.

No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridge, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: the cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

The number of old forts found in this western country are the admiration of the curious. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong well-chosen ground, and contigious to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; and the natives have lost all tradition respecting them.

GOVERNMENT.] By an ordinance of congress, passed the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance it is provided, that congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land while in office.

The same ordinance of congress provides that there shall be formed in this territory not less than three nor more than five states; and when any of the said states shall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, such state shall be admitted by its delegates into the congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original states, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state-government, provided

onstitution and government so to be formed shall be republican, o far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confe- y. Such admission should be allowed at an earlier period, and there may be a less number of inhabitants in the state than 60,000. e settlement of this country has been checked for several years past e unhappy Indian war. Of this, however, an amicable termina- ok place on the 3d of August, 1795, when a treaty was conclud- nce which a trade has been opened, by a law of congress, with dians, on such a liberal footing as promises to give permanency treaty, and security to the frontier inhabitants.

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# WEST INDIES.

ve already observed, that between the two continents of Ame- multitude of islands which we call the West Indies, and which, are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, itain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate ns of these islands differ widely from what we can form any what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetition, hem in general, and mention some other particulars that are o the West Indies.

mate in all our West-India islands is nearly the same, allowing ccidental differences which the several situations and quali- lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, n goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the never returning farther from any of them than about thirty he south, they are continually subjected to the extreme of a would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as ers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend to their en under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the ces, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly d, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points ss at once.

e manner, when the sun has made a great progress towards Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after ast body of clouds as shield the earth from his direct beams; g into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of latter end of May.

n the West Indies, (and we may add in the East Indies) ns so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but tively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; l lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low coun- ter*. Hence it is, the rivers which have their source ics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that t to be dried and scorched up with a continued and fer-

* See Watson's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches.

The preſent ſtate of the population in the Britiſh Weſt Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There is likewiſe in each of the iſlands a conſiderable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall ſhort of the ſame number in all other iſlands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants, therefore, may properly be divided into four great claſſes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4. Negroes in a ſtate of ſlavery.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Orinoque, in the main Continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] This iſland, which is the firſt belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4800 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks, heaped by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. The rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their root penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and, together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of the chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The valleys or plains between thoſe ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of the iſland is, in moſt places, exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea-breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs; and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue for

for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt ins; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh-Town, is a hot of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible ial diſtempers of Jamaica.

ir is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Co- s formerly cultivated in it to a great extent. It produces alſo gin- l the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cin- tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe hough uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the oiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet- and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear l of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize, and du- he cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which ry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the iffording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and ; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; igrove and olive-bark, uſeful to tanners: the fuſtic and red- the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was for- ich cultivated; and the cotton-tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of Eu- rain grows here; they have only maize or Indian-corn, Guinea- s of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with roots. Fruits, as has been already obſerved, grow in great itrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, idocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, ples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, allicada-pears, melons, pom- ivas, and ſeveral kinds of berries, alſo garden-ſtuffs in great l good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their igh and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have ity of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, and hardy, and, when well made, generally ſell for 30l. or g. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, chinia, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the a turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild ind in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; roquets, pelicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geeſe, ducks, s; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana waſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects , or chegoe, which eats into the nervous or membranous fleſh of the negroes; and the white people are ſometimes them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but egs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut p in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not week after they have been in the body, they pick them out , or point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag en- one of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind, nes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

l was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. nts had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; t till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our domi- Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Penn and Venables, Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was

unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and, having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in theſe parts.

About the beginning of this century it was computed that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. At preſent the inhabitants are ſtated at 30,000 whites, 10,000 freed negroes and people of colour, and 250,000 negro ſlaves.

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where the drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches, a number, perhaps, even the whole iſland exceeds not at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than there are now, though perhaps they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain; that as they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, who are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on the ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with incredible bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with an equally conſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and

re corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an hquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally whelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the leſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwal-d up nine tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The r guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the peo-n heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of s and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Se-ſhips were caſt away in the harbour, and the Swan frigate, which the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, lid not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at ime, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others ap-l with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. vannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was after-dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts mountains plit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance ile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a ſecond time, ten after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. epeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted he inhabitants, therefore, reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thou-uſes, many of them handſomely built, and, in the taſte of theſe as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with por-and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that cli-Not far from Kingſton ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place e courts of juſtice are held.

e 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt lined the little ſea port town of Savanna-la-Mar, in Jamaica, of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, eat number of lives were loſt. Much damage was alſo done, y perſons periſhed, in other parts of the iſland.

umber of white inhabitants in this iſland in 1787 was 30,000; roes 10,000; maroons 1400; and ſlaves 250,000; in all 304,000. e of this iſland as Britiſh property is eſtimated as follows; negroes, at 50l. ſterling each, twelve millions and a half; the d perſonal property, and buildings to which they are appurte-nty-five millions more; the houſes and property in the towns, ſſels employed in trade, one million and a half; in all thirty-ons. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of 1788, amounted in ſterling money to £.2,136,442. 17s. 3d. the exports to the United States amounted to £.60,095. 18s. tations from the United States to the value of 90,000l.

hole produce of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads; rs, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, wt. In 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Moſt of this goes to London, d Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return f, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar,

which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, melaſſes, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand staple the ſugar-cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter in Jamaica, that iſland has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweet meats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood; and both in the former, and latter, they carry on a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhow ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, where they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner inſtantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury to Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, carelеſsly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their dethabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood and brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland; which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being only Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets, beef, pork, fowl, and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed ſome gentlemen

l verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, re they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the of the people take little care to improve their minds, being gene- engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

he miſery and hardſhips of the natives are truly pitiable; and though t care is taken to make them propagate, the ill-treatment they re- ſo ſhortens their lives, that, inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of re, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt Indies, to ly the place of thoſe who pine and die with the hardſhips they un- . It is ſaid, that they are ſtubborn and untractable for the moſt part, hat they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to uſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as of their maſters or overſeers do at preſent, though ſome of theſe ts are themſelves the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfort- and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in gene- eſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, ive longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have behaved with the ſt humanity to their ſlaves were always beſt ſerved, and ran the nazard from their rebellions.—The ſlaves on their firſt arrival the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then ge- very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they ſoon become n enough; and, when they come to be whipped, excuſe their by the example of the whites. They believe every negro re- o his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, would otherwiſe, to many of them, be quite intolerable.— ook on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported k their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their ſhore, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a s about to expire, his fellow-ſlaves kiſs him, and wiſh him a good , and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. ake no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, g he is gone home and happy.

BADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, d in fifty-nine degrees weſt long. and thirteen degrees north lat. enty-one miles in length, and in breadth fourteen. When the ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. as no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo d the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes nd reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo d of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great diffi- y could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſt- y unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield derable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with es between the king and parliament, which were beginning to t in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport

themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery: a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented, and in 1676, it was ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of fifty years. But ſince that time this iſland has been much on the decline; which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites; 5,08 free people of colour; and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of dwellings were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and many more were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in ſixty-three degrees weſt long. and ſeventeen degrees north lat. about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1625 it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February 1782, it was taken by the French, but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in ſixty-one degrees weſt long. and 17 deg. north lat. is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt of the Engliſh harbours, being the beſt and ſafeſt as a dock-yard and an eſtabliſhment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greateſt trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward Iſlands. In 1774, the white inhabitants of Antigua of all ages and ſexes were 2,500, and the enſlaved negroes 37,808.

EVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding eighteen s in circumference. In the former of theſe iſlands the preſent num- f whites is ſtated not to exceed ſix hundred, while the negroes nt to about ten thouſand; a diſproportion which neceſſarily con- all ſuch white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude a well-regulated militia, among which there is a troop conſiſting of orſe, well mounted and accoutred. Engliſh forces, on the Britiſh iſhment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montſerrat amount 00 whites, and about 10,000 negroes. The ſoil in theſe iſlands ty much alike, light and ſandy, but, notwithſtanding, fertile in degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored peace.

RBUDA.] Situated in eighteen degrees north lat. and ſixty-two ng. thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is twenty miles in length, elve in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for g, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly ed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the ouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inha- amount to about 1500.

GUILLA.] Situated in nineteen deg. north lat. ſixty miles north- St. Chriſtopher's, is about thirty miles long and ten broad. nd is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that ica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves ndry, and feeding of cattle.

TINICA.] Situated in ſixteen deg. north lat. and in ſixty-two g. lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It wenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth: it got its m being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of d is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; ides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have poſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their commu- in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. How- he peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in expreſs terms to h; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of Caribbees, who, being expelled their own ſettlements, have ge here. But on account of its ſituation between the princi- iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the moſt ca- the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Do- a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was e French in 1778; but was reſtored again to Great Britain peace.

CENT.] Situated in thirteen deg. north lat. and 61 deg. fifty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, thirty miles ſouth of St. bout twenty-four miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. ely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the r for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably his article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the . Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here gitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Carib- treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace

in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituated in twelve deg. north lat. and ſixty-two deg. weſt long. about thirty leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertiliſe it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage; which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it is not ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, one hundred large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery.. In the last war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. But in July, 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt-Indian ſugar iſlands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak, according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the Gulf of St. Laurence, between forty-ſix and fifty-two deg. north lat. and between fifty-three and fifty-nine deg. weſt long.—ſeparated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Laurence; being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and hail; the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland, which is rocky and barren, we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to be of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea-coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect), it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply of maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery: on board of which, and ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; be-

fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a t excellent nurſery for the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to aſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted s for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank and the leſſer , which lie on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in dance, all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores ewfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the Iſle of Cape n; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, o way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

is iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern ſhores of the iſland; y the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the Gulf of St. nce, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach with- e leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of New- and, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no ations on theſe iſlands, nor to keep more than fifty ſoldiers to the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy eries on the north and weſt coaſt of the iſland. The chief towns foundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John; but not above milies remain here in the winter.

E BRETON.] This iſland, or rather collection of iſlands, called French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie ſo contiguous that they monly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the f Cape Breton, lies between forty-five and forty-ſeven deg. t. and between fifty-nine and ſixty deg. weſt long. from London. out one hundred miles in length, and fifty in breadth; and is d from Nova Scotia by a narrow ſtrait, called the *Gut of Canſo*, the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of ence. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly ouiſbourg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has ere ſix or ſeven fathoms water.

rench began a ſettlement in this iſland in 1714, which they d to increaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, ed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, e aſſiſtance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty -Chapelle, ceded to the French, who ſpared no expence to nd ſtrengthen it. Notwithſtanding which, it was again re- 1758, by the Britiſh troops, under general Amherſt and ad- awen, together with a large body of New England men, who hat place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and d it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of e which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town urg diſmantled.

IN's.] Situated in the Gulf of St. Laurence, is about ſixty ength, and thirty or forty broad, and has many fine rivers; h lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the

advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to four thouſand, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages, this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtyled the granary of Canada, which is furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has ſeveral navigable rivers, and a rich ſoil. Charlotte-town is its capital, and is the reſidence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the iſland. The inhabitants are eſtimated at about five thouſand.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] Theſe received their firſt name from their being diſcovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard: and were called the Summer Iſlands, from Sir George Summers, who was ſhip-wrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in thirty-two deg. north lat. and in ſixty-five degrees weſt long. Their diſtance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Main about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, "walled with rocks." The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts, and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 100 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between twelve and twenty-ſeven degrees north lat. and ſeventy-three and eighty-one degrees weſt long. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the Iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina; they are, however, almoſt uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The latter, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle on them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the Amer-

igation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain odes Rogers, with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a lement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an in-endent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſet-ıent, theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ·ly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes con-ıed there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards captured theſe iſlands ng the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. uſtine, April 7, 1783.

ALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt-Indian ds, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as s the fifty-ſecond degree of ſouth latitude, where the reader, by ing into the map, will perceive the Falkland Iſlands ſituated near Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. land Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, rincipal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of ı Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name, Falkland, was probably ı them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, s from that time been received into our maps. They have occa-l ſome conteſt between Spain and Great Britain; but being of very worth, ſeem to have been ſilently abandoned by the latter in 1774, ler to avoid giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court.

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# NISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

## EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ıgth 500<br>adth 440 | between | 80 and 91 Weſt longitude<br>25 and 32 North latitude | 100,000 |

DARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded rgia on the North; by the Miſſiſſippi on the Weſt, by the Gulf ico on the South; and by the Bahama Straits on the Eaſt.

RS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which is one of the fineſt in the as well as the largeſt; for including its turnings and windings, ıpoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels conſiderable burthen; there being according to Mitchel's map, elve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman ſays, ſeventeen) at cipal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and nel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a aſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where n ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or noſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. vers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's Aſcenſion, Mobile, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Santo, and Charles bay.

The chief capes are Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florin, at the extremity of the peninſula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of the air particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Florida Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Eaſt Florida, near the ſea, and forty miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large ſize, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country, toward the hills, is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions.

This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis-lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are alſo found in the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle horſe in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22, W. long. 87-20; which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. long. 11-12, runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and incloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

# NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

## SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| ngth 2000 } | between | { 94 and 126 West longitude. } | 100,000 |
| adth 1400 } | | { 23 and 43 North latitude. } | |

OUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louisiana on the East; by Old Mexico, and the c Ocean, on the South; and by the same Ocean on the West.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| -east division | New Mexico Proper | { SANTA FE, W. lon. 104, N. lat. 36. |
| -east division | Apacheira - - | St. Antonio |
| division | Sonora - - - | Tuape |
| n division | California, a peninsula, | St. Juan |

E AND CLIMATE.] These countries, lying for the most part the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely le, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. fornia, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, winter even cold.

E AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of untries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communi- t is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, ned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, oducing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the nes in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted. Their productions are undoubtedly insufficient to render them advan- colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in ing a great quantity of dew, which settling on the rose leaves, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of gar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singu- ction; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, , and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of l on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any s nation.

ITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE.] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively ough they are increasing every day, in proportion as new discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the issionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, ed life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export gely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, conqueror of Mexico: our famous navigator, Sir Francis ok possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by al king or chief in the whole country. This title, however, ment of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, ifornia is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has ry of great value. The inhabitants and government here do lly differ from those of old Mexico.

# OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 2000, Breadth 600 | between | 83 and 110 W. long. / 8 and 30 N. lat. | 318,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the North-east; by Terra Firma, on the South-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-west; containing three audiences, viz.

| Audiences. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|
| 1. Galicia, or Guadalajarra - | Guadalajarra |
| | MEXICO, W. long. 100. N. lat. 19-34. |
| 2. Mexico Proper - - - - | Acapulco |
| | Vera Cruz |
| 3. Guatimala - - - - | Guatimala.* |

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco, and Salinas.

CAPES.] Theſe are the Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Condecedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Santo, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Prucreos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot; and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, were the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala; ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any other

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, and eight thouſand families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is built at ſome diſtance, and is well inhabited.

: of Spaniſh America. Cedar-trees and log-wood abound about the
; of Campeachy and Honduras; the maho-tree alſo, which has a
: with ſuch ſtrong fibres that they twiſt and make ropes of. They
: alſo a tree which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork,
vhich they make floats to carry their merchandiſe on the ſea-coaſts.
what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what
induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of
and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New
ada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver,
h are much more rich; as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral
, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines
oth kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous
of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for her de-
in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends
he ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſe-
heterogeneous ſubſtances mixed with the precious metals, it is
n into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which
s it is diſengaged from the earth and other ſoft bodies which
to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances,
he ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction
ver than the other ſubſtances, which are united with it in the ore.
eans of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſepa-
from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by ſtraining and evapo-
, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. It has been computed
he revenues of Mexico amount to twenty-four millions of our
; and it is well-known that this, with the other provinces of
h America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other arti-
ext in importance to gold and ſilver are the cochineal and cocoa.
ormer is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects.
eres to the plant called opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit,
is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal
its value, which conſiſts in dyeing all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet,
n, and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as
al; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs
ne hundred thouſand pounds' weight of this commodity to anſwer
rpoſes of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate
, grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about
and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh
ree in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the general conſumption,
as the external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoa-trees is
produce to the owner twenty-thouſand crowns a-year. At home
s a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutri-
nd ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilks,
in ſuch quantity as to make any remarkable part of their export.
is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightneſs, is the
n wear of the inhabitants.

LATION, INHABITANTS, RNMENT, AND MANNERS. } We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and juſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh a. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and early the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe, only a ater portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled y high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other

inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are defcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and prudence, which conſtitute the principal part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they paſſe the greateſt part of their lives to loitering and indolent pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive without grandeur and true convenience, their general character is no more than a mean and ſpiritleſs inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitutional timidity the whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies, or even gentlemen, are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity and domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and inhumanity, a dejected, timorous, and miſerable race of people. The blacks here, like thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is conducted by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the old parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power which his catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the moſt abſolute government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politics in whatever relates to America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, make up towards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church ſhould enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the Gulf of Mexico; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea; and with South America by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almoſt the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera

, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodi-
or Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From
era Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the Iſle of Cuba, which is
ndezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet, which car-
n the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama
orto Bello. When all are collected, and provided with a convoy
ſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.
apulco is the ſea-port by which the communication is kept up be-
the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America and the
Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attend-
y a large ſhip as a convoy, annually arrives here. The cargoes of
ſhips (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, like-
carries goods) conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures
e Eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital
eru, comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions
ces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver, and other valuable com-
ties, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galleon's cargoes. Se-
other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the
occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of
world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galleon
prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European
s as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this
be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart
eir dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as
allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to
ſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo the Spaniſh in-
ants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined
European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the
er part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithſtanding what has
ſaid of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capi-
f the empire, ought to be conſidered as the centre of commerce in
part of the world; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the
eſt part of the buſineſs is negotiated. The Eaſt-India goods from
ulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs through this city.
er all the gold and ſilver come to be coined; here the king's fifth
poſited; and here are wrought all the utenſils and ornaments in
which are every year ſent to Europe. The city itſelf breathes the
f the higheſt magnificence, and, according to the beſt accounts, con-
about 80,000 inhabitants.

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# ANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA, TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1400<br>Breadth 700 | between | 60 and 82 Weſt long.<br>the Equator, and 12 N. lat. | 700,000 |

NDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean) on the North; by the ſame ſea and Surinam he Eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the South; by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the Weſt.

| Divisions. | Subdivisions. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| The northern division contains the provinces of.... | 1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien | Porto Bello<br>PANAMA, W. long. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47. |
| | 2. Carthagena | Carthagena |
| | 3. St. Martha | St. Martha |
| | 4. Rio de la Hacha | Rio de la Hacha |
| | 5. Venezuela | Venezuela |
| | 6. Comana | Comana |
| | 7. New Andalusia, or Paria | St. Thomas |
| The southern division contains the provinces of.... | 1. New Granada | Santa Fé de Bagota |
| | 2. Popayan | Popayan |

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, of Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello, in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the isthmus or neck of land is only fixty miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Orenoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St. Michael's in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela, the Bay of Maracaibo, the Gulf of Triesto, the Bay of Gunira, the Bay of Curiaco, and the Gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas Point, Point Canoa, Cape del Arco, Swart Point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Carthagena, the excessive heat raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchineel-tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The malignity of this tree is such, that if a person only sleeps under it he finds his body swelled, and is racked with the severest tortures. The beasts, from instinct, always avoid it. The habella de Carthagena is the

nit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond' it leſs white, and extremely bitter: this kernel is found to be an cellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous ers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. here were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great aſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines, have been ce opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other ecious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of any of the animals that are found in the Southern parts. Among oſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or, it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. He bears a reſem- ance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt retched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and his ſkin all over rrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtir- g unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. hen he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at e ſame time ſo diſagreeable, a cry, as at once produces pity and diſ- ſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal; r on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, hich is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his pur- er flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of is horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtop- g by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the uit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another trou- eſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the e, he gathers himſelf into a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ound.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep to- ther, twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping om tree to tree; and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter and make a ghtful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the l on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes: t where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper ay.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country who fall under our neral deſcription of the Americans, there is another ſpecies, of a fair mplexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary dians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what incipally diſtinguiſhes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, un- le to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moonlight, and from which y are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spa- rds. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe Mexico. To what we have obſerved with regard to this country, it only neceſſary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are vari- ſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures m various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each er, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded in proportion a ater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt

at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. The substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is found the new substance called *platina*, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and, from its superior qualities, might almost vie with gold itself.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and the whole Spanish empire: its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each of his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of light materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering more houses unnecessary; and, besides, it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into *Lima* in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the amount of seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of: the fleet from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate sale for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete; not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, swelling with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants in

ver in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave hich deſtroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the nan ſtood, in which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved. Cuſco, the ncient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice f. As it lies in a mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ea, it has been long on the decline; but it is ſtill a very conſiderable lace, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, nd very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for paintng; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been adnired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next o Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is, like Cuſco, an nland city, and, having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous or its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conumption all over the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. } It has been eſtimated by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater, hough neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, nd extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs re the two predominant paſſions. It is ſaid, by the moſt authentic ravellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its coonies. The Creoles, and all the other deſcendents of the Spaniards, ccording to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilering vices, which a true-born Caſtilian could not think of but with eteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which ll but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind geneally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. n Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of he firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the iceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, hich has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute s the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neeſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral udiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury ourt eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the nines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king f Spain.

# CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1200<br>Breadth 500 | between | 25 and 45 S. lat.<br>65 and 85 W. long. | 206,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru on the North; by La Plata on the East; by Patagonia on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean on the West.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| On the weſt ſide or the Andes, | Chili Proper..... | St. Jago, W. long. 77. S. lat. 34.<br>Baldivia<br>Imperial |
| On the eaſt ſide of the Andes, | Cuyo, or Cutio ..... | St. John de Frontiers. |

LAKES.] The principal lakes are thoſe of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Beſides which, they have ſeveral ſalt-water lakes, that have a communication with the ſea, part of the year. In ſtormy weather the ſea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fiſh; but in the hot ſeaſon the water congeals, leaving a cruſt of fine white ſalt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea that borders upon Chili is the Pacific Ocean on the weſt. The principal rivers are the Salado or Salt River, Guaſco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bobio, and the Baldivia, all ſcarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Gonmadore, Valparifo, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Caſtro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Theſe are not remarkably different from the ſame in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with reſpect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all ſpecies of grain, of which a conſiderable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the ſame with thoſe of Peru; and they have gold almoſt in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are ſtill in a greater meaſure unconquered and uncivilized, and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preſervation from the Spaniſh yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not ſuppoſed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections againſt the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined

to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

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# PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. | Sq. Miles. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Length 1500, Breadth 1000 | between | 12 and 37 S. lat. 50 and 75 W. long. | 1,000,000 |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the North; by Braſil on the Eaſt; by Patagonia on the South; and by Peru and Chili on the Weſt.

| Diviſions. | Provinces. | Chief Towns. |
|---|---|---|
| Eaſt diviſion contains | Paragua | Aſſumption |
| | Parana | St. Anne |
| | Guaira | Ciudad Real |
| | Uragua | Los Royes |
| South diviſion | Tucuman | St. Jago |
| | Rio de la Plata | BUENOS AYRES, W. long. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35. |

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Caſacoroes, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in great degree unknown to them, or to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities: tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the car-

caſes being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the uſual price for a bullock, chuſen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkably ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, 30 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Braſil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regular ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar, and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America, and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out, and uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, not to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they perſuaded to live; and they united them into a little township. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it occaſioned ſo much envy and jealouſy of their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſo maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the ſa-

wage nations, fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion; and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with preciſion, all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could confirm their ſubjection, or increaſe their numbers; and it is ſaid, that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits; living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: that the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity, accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who are always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdiction, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treaſures, annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paragua. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacrament, to make the Oragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. And we are informed by authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops who were ſent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

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## SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated between twenty and twenty-five deg. north lat. and between ſeventy-four and eighty-five deg. weſt long. one hundred miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and ſeventy-five north of Jamaica, and is near ſeven hundred miles in length, and generally about ſeventy miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through

the middle of the island from east to west; but the land [illegible] in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the [illegible] This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for [illegible] ty, of any in America. It produces all commodities [illegible] West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other [illegible] fifteen turtle, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and [illegible] the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not [illegible] this as might be expected. It is said that its experts [illegible] quantity thrice of our small island of Antigua.

The mouth of the rivers is too short to be of any [illegible] there are several good harbours in the island which belong [illegible] vital ports, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly [illegible] well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the [illegible] being Havana, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a [illegible] strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, [illegible] number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, [illegible] age and performance of the English troops in the year [illegible] forced in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, the [illegible] Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a [illegible] thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between sixty-four and [illegible] west long and in eighteen deg. north lat. lying between [illegible] St. Christopher's, is one hundred miles long and sixty [illegible] is beautifully diversified with woods, valleys, and plains [illegible] tremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other [illegible] well watered with springs and rivers, but the island is [illegible] the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that [illegible] settled here, but there is no longer any considerable [illegible] metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on [illegible] forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief [illegible] way, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the [illegible] inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake [illegible] wards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited [illegible] the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the [illegible] tied on by the English and French with the king of Spain's [illegible]

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto [illegible] extremely small.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between fifty nine and sixty-[illegible] long and in ten deg. north lat. lies between the Island of [illegible] the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the [illegible] It is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad; and is [illegible] but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, [illegible] of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was [illegible] Walter Raleigh in 1596, and by the French in 1676, [illegible] the island and extented money from the inhabitants. It [illegible] by the British arms in February 1797.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in sixty-four deg. west [illegible] north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalu[illegible] Farms, by a fruit of twenty-four miles, is about forty [illegible] and twenty-four in breadth; and being always verdant, [illegible] agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in [illegible] but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was [illegible] fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which

have paid no attention. We ſhall, therefore, proceed round Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any ance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, ne harbours well fortified.

AN FERNANDES.] Lying in eighty-three deg. weſt long. and three ſouth lat. three hundred miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is ibited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely nient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water. This iſland ous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon e. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left aſhore s ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he liſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers in 1709. When taken up, d forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ng to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats' ſkin, l drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland he had killed goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught years after by lord Anſon's people: their venerable aſpect, and ſtic beards, diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his nd adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his rs into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; that writer, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, tranſ- ed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. y were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe might ve little from them but thoſe hints which gave riſe to his own cele- ted performance.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago Iſles, ated four hundred miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe the Bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

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# PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

## CONTAINING BRASIL.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

| Miles. | | Degrees. |
|---|---|---|
| Length 2500 | between | the Equator and 35 South latitude. |
| Breadth 700 | | 35 and 60 Weſt longitude. |

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the River Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame Ocean, on the Eaſt; by the mouth of the River Plata, on the South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the Weſt.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Chief Towns. |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Para, or Belem |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Lewis |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Siara |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Luc. |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Tignares |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Payraba |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Tamara |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Olinda |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Serigipe |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Salvador |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Para |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Porto Seguro |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | Spirito Santo |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Sebastian |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Vincent |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | St. Salvador |

[illegible] are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions [illegible] the Straits of Le Maire, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Clement's.

[illegible] } The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of [illegible] miles in length, and forms many spacious harbours, as the harbour of Tamara, St. Salvador, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador on the river of La Plata.

The principal capes are Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Frio, [illegible] Cape St. Mary, the most southern point of the country of Brasil.

[illegible] } The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed [illegible] abounded with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which is the most fruitful part of the country, the climate is hot, but serene, and unwholesome; towards the south it grows more variable and tempestuous, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such degrees of rain, that in the low lands, near the country is overflowed. But to the southward of about the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world [illegible] more mild and wholesome air, replenished with the most [illegible] of the ocean on the one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low and flat, but [illegible] pleasant, it being interspersed with mead woods, and [illegible] the sea, the whole land, are mountains from whence [illegible] many noble rivers, that fall into the great rivers Amazons and La Plata, [illegible] running across the country from east to west all the way [illegible] the Atlantic Ocean, and overflowing the lands which they [illegible] and north, and forming the islands belonging to the Portuguese.

Soil and produce. } In general the soil is extremely fruitful, [illegible] sugar which being dried, is whiter and finer than our [illegible] as well as the unrefined sugar; also tobacco, [illegible] ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaiba, Brasil wood, which is of a red [illegible] fine, and is much esteemed in dyeing, but not the red of the [illegible] which is also known there in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The prod-

f the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants until
e mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered: theſe, with the ſugar
antations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected, and,
conſequence, Braſil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in Ame-
a, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable.
hey are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate
xury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical
d diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in deal-
g; lazy, proud, and cruel; in their diet penurious; for, like the
habitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhow,
ite, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a
od table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to
travagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be
rried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called ſerpentines, which
e borne on the negroes' ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo about
elve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and
orned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and
ove the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon car-
d cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down, or ſit up
ning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the
rtain aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets;
they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks,
l even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the
o ſlaves who carry them make uſe of a ſtrong well made ſtaff, with
iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they
k faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock
fixed, on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is
r. Scarcely any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets
hout being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on
n the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe
le with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles
Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience
he ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may
ct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal,
compoſe three flotas, bound to as many ports in Braſil; namely, to
nambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern ex-
nity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

n this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes
city of Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to
tugal. This city commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious
bour. It is built upon a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon
ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly, ſo
early to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a man-
impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong
fications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond compariſon, the
t gay and opulent city in all Braſil.

he trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is
leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying
nſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works at a much cheaper rate
any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they
g the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa,
nce they import between forty and fifty thouſand negroes annually,

all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brafil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities that European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe; oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal. England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Braſils.

Braſil is a very wealthy and flouriſhing ſettlement. Their export of ſugar within forty years is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in the United States. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle: theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than twenty thouſand are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe had been long in poſſeſſion of Braſil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of one hundred ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the Spaniſh flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuccio, in 1498; but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata; which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their independence, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and being not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independence by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, being flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſe-

ſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips, or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopped by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Braſil; but their Weſt India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and haraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country; which was accepted: and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Braſil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

## FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions of the French on the continent of America are at preſent inconſiderable. They were maſters of Canada and Louiſiana; but they have now loſt all footing in North America; though on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement, which is called

### CAYENNE, or EQUINOXIAL FRANCE.

IT is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the fiftieth and fifty-fifth of weſt longitude. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, eaſt; by Amazonia, ſouth; and by Guiana, weſt. The chief town is Caen. All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements: the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt India iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name which is about forty-five miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy: but, having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

## FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

ST. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.] This iſland was at firſt poſ-

ſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part has been long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spaniſh part was likewiſe ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795. It muſt now, therefore, be conſidered as a French iſland.

It is ſituated between the ſeventeenth and twenty-firſt deg. north. lat. and the ſixty-ſeventh and ſeventy-fourth of weſt long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcoved by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt a million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extreamely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which were in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The population of this iſland was eſtimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,808 free people of colour; and 405,528 ſlaves. Its trade employed 580 large ſhips, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spaniſh ſhips exported, in French goods or money, 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ſhips, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,500 negroes, who ſold for eight millions of dollars.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the Admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Meſtizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its deſtruction in 1793, it contained about eight thouſand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and ſlaves. It is the governor's reſidence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince is in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to theſe in other reſpects, is the firſt port in the iſland for ſafety in time of war, being by nature and art ſtrongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

In the night between the 22d and 23d of Auguſt, 1791, a moſt alarming inſurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this iſland. A ſcene of the moſt horrid cruelties enſued. In a little time no leſs than one hundred thouſand negroes were in rebellion. All the manufactories and plantations of more than half the north

province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. In this dreadful conflict, which has been of long continuance, the white coloniſts of St. Domingo have been extirpated or expelled, and the whole power of the iſland conſequently veſted in the mulattoes, the negroes, and the lower claſſes of the French inhabitants. The ſovereign authority has fallen into the hands of ſome of the people of colour; the negroes who were ſlaves have been, during the greater part of the ſix years which have nearly elapſed ſince this change was effected, emancipated from their chains, and the majority of them trained to arms. In a word, it is the decided opinion of the beſt and moſt competent judges, that all the powers of Europe, combined, could not now fruſtrate the views of the people of colour in St. Domingo; and that a few years will preſent us with the new and perhaps formidable phænomenon of a black republic, conſtituted in the nobleſt iſland of the weſtern ocean, in alliance with America, and only connected with that continent.

In the month of October, 1793, the Engliſh effected a landing on this iſland, and made themſelves maſters of Jeremie, Cape Tiburon, the Mole, and ſeveral other places on the coaſt. The troops, however, ſuffered greatly by the unhealthineſs of the climate; ſeveral of the places they had gained poſſeſſion of were ſoon retaken; nor could they have retained the others, had it not been for the conteſts and mutual jealouſies of the whites and people of colour.

MARTINICO, which is ſituated between fourteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude, and in ſixty-one degrees weſt longitude, lying about forty leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about ſixty miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt-India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico was the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious, and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken by the Engliſh in 1794.

GUADALQUPE.] So called by Columbus from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in ſixteen degrees north latitude, and in ſixty-two weſt longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and alſo as much ſouth of Antigua; being forty-five miles long, and thirty-eight broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar almoſt incredible. Like Martinico it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759 it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was again reduced by the Engliſh in 1794, but evacuated a few months after.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in fourteen degrees north latitude, and in fixty-one degrees weſt longitude, eighty miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French: and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to ſettle at theſe iſlands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleaſant rivers and well ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the Engliſh in 1794, ſurrendered again to the French in 1795, and re-captured by Great Britain in 1796.

TOBAGO.] This iſland is ſituated in eleven degrees odd min. north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh main. It is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kinds of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appear from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763 it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781 it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1783. In 1793 it was again captured by the Britiſh arms.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, } are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt-India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that iſland. p. 955.

# DUTCH AMERICA,

## Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh main.

Dutch Guiana is ſituated between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. This was one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars of the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and make frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions, and take home a large quantity of melaſſes. Surinam was taken by the Engliſh in Auguſt 1799.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted; for the colonies were left defenceleſs, and ſoon were retaken by a French frigate. In the preſent war, however, they again ſurrendered to the Britiſh arms, April 21, 1796.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourſe. There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed

themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependents, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock perfectly reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, eſq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largeſt place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a ſmall amphibious creature, about the ſize of a pig four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair; and its fleſh, by the Europeans who reſide here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

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## DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

**ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.** SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is only a mountain, about twenty-nine miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account, and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountain are diſpoſed in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civiliſed nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation were formerly characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the revolted colonies with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long and 10 broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for this iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America; yet the Dutch have entirely

remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far one of the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock. Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar: it has, beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch here for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda-coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloths, laces, ſilks, ribbands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt-India, which is alſo their African, company annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers' ſhops, with every thing that has grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, goes off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuit's bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000l. but in the time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies; it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied, either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the

company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when St. Euſtatia ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

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## DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable iſland of the Caribbees, is ſituate in 64 degrees weſt long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince the late king of Denmark bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money, in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to thrive very faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of very great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement

# NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and ſtill more by thoſe that have been made by Britiſh navigators in the preſent reign, which have been numerous and important; and of theſe diſcoveries we ſhall therefore give a compendious account.

## NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, which are ſituated between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern coaſt of the continent of America*. Mr. Muller divides theſe iſlands into four principal groups, the firſt two of which are ſtyled the Aleutian iſlands. The firſt group, which is called by ſome of the iſlanders Safignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Iſland; 2. Copper Iſland; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Semyia; 5. Anakta. The ſecond group is called Khao, and comprifes eight iſlands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiſka; 3. Tchetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tſchangulek; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtſchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the iſlands known to the Ruſſians under the name of Andreanoffiki Oſtrova; ſixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotſha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illaſk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has alſo a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketſhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Goroi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends ſixteen iſlands; which are called by the Ruſſians Lyſie Oſtrova, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tſchigama; 3. Tſchegula; 4. Uniſtra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tanagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun Alathka; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo Leiſſume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. Copper Iſland receives its name from the copper which the ſea throws up on its coaſts. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are in general of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair and little beard, flattiſh faces and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, and of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian iſles live upon the roots which grow wild, and ſea animals. They do not employ themſelves in catching fiſh, though the rivers

* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea which lies between Kamtſchatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expenſe of the crown; but, when it was diſcovered that the iſlands of that ſea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the late empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expenſe, by perſons of abilities and learning; in conſequence of which, conſiderable diſcoveries have been made.

abound with all kinds of ſalmon, and the ſea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the ſkins of birds, and of ſea otters.

The Fox iſlands are ſo called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they uſe a much more ſhowy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone: having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion intended for keeping is dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who, in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon his iſland as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up their beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are deſirous of warming themſelves, they light a bundle of hay, and ſtand over it; or elſe they ſet fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow ſtone. They have a good ſhare of plain natural ſenſe, but are rather ſlow of underſtanding. They ſeem cold and indifferent in moſt of their actions; but let an injury, or even a ſuſpicion only, rouſe them from this phlegmatic ſtate, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the moſt violent revenge, without any regard to the conſequences. The leaſt affliction prompts them to ſuicide; the apprehenſion of even an uncertain evil often leads them to deſpair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent inſenſibility.

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## NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the weſtern coaſt of North America, in the neighbourhood of Prince William's Sound, and to the latitude of 61° north, it appeared that a

ig ſimilarity was diſcernible between them and the Eſquimaux on eaſtern coaſt; whence it was conjectured by ſome that a communion by ſea exiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of that continent. In ſupport of this conjecture old accounts were revived of the overies of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes; the one a ek pilot, who made his voyage in 1592, and the other a Spaniſh or ugueſe admiral, who ſailed in 1640. John de Fuca had related that ween the 47th and 48th degrees of north latitude he had entered a id inlet which led him into a far broader ſea, wherein he ſailed above nty days; and De Fonte had ſailed through crooked channels in an nſive archipelago 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river ch flowed into it, in 53° of north latitude, and communicated, by r lakes and rivers, with a paſſage in which a ſhip had arrived from ion in New England. The truth of theſe ancient accounts appeared e ſtrongly corroborated, ſome years ſince, by the diſcovery ſaid to be le by one Mr. Etches, who had fitted out ſome ſhips for the fur trade, all the weſtern coaſt of America, from lat. 48° to 57° north, was continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been lored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea, like Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which ſeemed likewiſe to be of iſlands. Among theſe, Mr. Etches' ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, was to have penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues, in a north-eaſt direction, they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention heir voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to exe the archipelago juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termion of this new mediterranean ſea.

The exiſtence of any ſuch inland ſea is, however, now, completely oved by the voyage of the late captain Vancouver, who, during the nners of 1792, 1793, and 1794, explored and accurately ſurveyed the ole weſtern coaſt of North America, from lat. 30° to 60°. Between 47th and 57th degrees of north latitude there is indeed an archipelago, poſed of innumerable iſlands and crooked channels; but he no ere found either the inlet of John de Fuca, the river of De Fonte, the inland ſea of Mr. Etches' ſhip.—"The preciſion," ſays captain ncouver, "with which the ſurvey of the coaſt of North-weſt Amehas been carried into effect, will, I truſt, remove every doubt, and aſide every opinion of *a north-weſt paſſage*, or any water communicaı navigable for ſhipping, exiſting between the North Pacific and the erior of the American continent, within the limits of our reſearches." This coaſt, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one conued foreſt, being covered with pines of different ſpecies, intermixed h alder, birch, and other trees. The natives of the northern parts in general ſhort in ſtature, with faces flat and round, high cheekes, and flat noſes. They have ſome very peculiar cuſtoms of mutiing or diſfiguring their perſons, probably by way of ornament, though as they appear diſguſting and even hideous. At Port Trinidada, in 41° north, the cuſtom, ſays captain Vancouver, "was particularly gular, and muſt be attended with much pain in the firſt inſtance, and at inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both ſexes were, by ne proceſs, ground uniformly down horizontally to the gums; the men eſpecially carrying the faſhion to an extreme, had their teeth luced even below this level; and ornamented the lower lip with three pendicular rows of punctuation, one from each corner of the mouth, d one in the middle, occupying three fifths of the lip and chin." On ier parts of this coaſt the women make a horizontal inciſion in the

ıe government is monarchical, and the king is abſolute, but his
er is exerciſed more with the mildneſs of a father than a ſovereign.
ıe language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occa-
ılly oreates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a fin-
r honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members
hich are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a bone on their arm.
he idea which the account publiſhed by captain Wilſon gives us of
: iſlanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the
and ſciences, and living in the ſimpleſt ſtate of nature, yet poſſeſs
hat genuine politeneſs, that delicacy, and chaſtity of intercourſe be-
:n the ſexes, that reſpect for perſonal property, that ſubordination to
:rnment, and thoſe habits of induſtry, which are ſo rarely united in
more civiliſed ſocieties of modern times.
t appears, that when the Engliſh were thrown on one of theſe
ıds, they were received by the natives with the greateſt humanity
hoſpitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmoſt cour-
and attention. "They felt our people were diſtreſſed, and in con-
:quence wiſhed they ſhould ſhare whatever they had to give. It was
ot that worldly munificence that beſtows and ſpreads its favours
ith a diſtant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native
enevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a ſcene that
ictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and, whilſt their
berality gratified the ſenſe, their virtue ſtruck the heart."

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## THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

HESE iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Quiros in 1595: their ſitua-
ı was better aſcertained by captain Cook in 1774. They are five in
nber, and named St. Chriſtina, Magdalena, St. Dominica, St. Pe-
, and Hood. Captain Cook, in his ſecond voyage, lay ſome time
he firſt of theſe, which is ſituated in 9° 55′ ſouth latitude, and
)° 9′ weſt longitude. St. Dominica is the largeſt, about 16 leagues
:ircuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with
vegetable productions, are nearly the ſame as thoſe of the Society Iſles.

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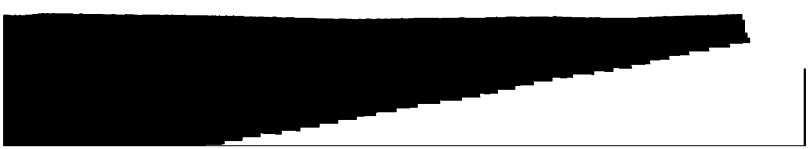
## INGRAHAM's ISLANDS.

HESE iſlands were diſcovered by captain Joſeph Ingraham, of Boſ-
ton, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April,
91. They lie N. N. W. from the Marqueſas Iſlands, from 35 to 50
gues diſtant, in about 9° of ſouth latitude, and from 140 to 141 weſt
ıgitude from London. They are ſeven in number, and were named
captain Ingraham, Waſhington, Adams, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin,
ıncock, Knox.
Moſt, if not all, of theſe iſlands are inhabited, and appear generally
be diverſified with hills and valleys, and to be well wooded, and very
:aſant. The people reſemble thoſe of the Marqueſas Iſlands,
do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared
endly.



# OTAHEITE, or KING GEORGE's ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. south latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 min. west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at fifty leagues distance. The soil, except near the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea is in few places more

* The Dolphin was first out under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the British government, in August, 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. Their orders proceeded together till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitsun Island*, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26' S. and its longitude 154° 30' W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middling stature, dark complexion, and long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and formed curtain it being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18' S., longitude 139° 6' W. In the course of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Island*, *Gloucester Island*, *Cumberland Island*, *Prince William Henry's Land*, and *Osnaburgh Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July, 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Byron's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Mount's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Mafafuero, discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude 25° 2 S., longitude 135° 21 W. and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of *the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island*. The next day he discovered two other small islands, which he called *the Duke of Gloucester's Isles*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Islands*, and also three others, which he named *Gower's Island*, *Sandwich Island*, and *Carteret's Island*. On the 24th of the same month he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in latitude 4° 30' S. and the next day *Wrangle Island*, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arived in March 1769.

in a ſeparate ſtate, where there are two ſituations, of different degrees of happineſs. Among theſe people a ſubordination is eſtabliſhed, which ſomewhat reſembles the early ſtate of the European nations under the feudal ſyſtem. If a general attack happens to be made upon the iſland, every diſtrict is obliged to furniſh its proportion of ſoldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for warlike operations.

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# THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the ſeveral iſlands ſo called, and which were diſcovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the

* At the cloſe of the year 1767, it was reſolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769, and that the iſlands called Marquiſs de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervations. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty his pleaſure that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and ſeventy tons, was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this aſtronomical obſervation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite to the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their obſervers ſent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of Auguſt, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Iſland, Two Groups, Bird Iſland, and Chain Iſland, and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and, on the 4th of June, the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage. The reſult of their obſervations may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and ſeveral others, thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes, longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called *Barrier Iſlands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea: and in September, 1770, arrived at the iſland of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accord-

prayers without the uſe of idols, and [illegible] I, but appears nei-
in a ſeparate ſtate, where there ar[illegible] refreſhments to be pro-
of happineſs. Among theſe [illegible]gs, and fowls; but the
which ſomewhat reſembles th[illegible] from Ulitea by a ſtrait,
the feudal ſyſtem. If a ge[illegible]wo miles broad. This iſland
iſland, every diſtrict is ob[illegible]ace is of the ſame kind as that of
common defence. Thei[illegible]es to the north-weſt of Otaha lies
dexterity, and clubs o[illegible]oy a reef of rocks and ſeveral ſmall
heavy wood. They [illegible]more than eight leagues in compaſs. The
conſtructed for war[illegible]arua, which lie about fourteen miles to the
[illegible]aining ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name

## OF OHETEROA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor ſo fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of cocoa wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

## THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands, which were diſcovered by M. de Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate De la Pérouſe in 1787, are ten in number, and called by the natives Opoun, Leone, Fanfoue, Maouna, Oyolava, Calinaſſe, Pola, Shika, Oſſamo, and Ouera. Opoun, the moſt ſouthern as well as the moſt eaſterly of theſe iſlands, lies in 14° 7′ ſouth latitude, and 169° 7′ weſt longitude. At Maouna, M. de la Pérouſe, commander of the French ſhips the Bouſſole and Aſtrolabe, met with his firſt fatal accident: M. de Langle, captain of the Aſtrolabe, and eleven officers and ſailors, being maſſacred by the natives. Oyolava is ſeparated from Maouna by a channel about nine leagues wide, and is at leaſt equal to Otaheite in extent, fertility, and population. The iſland of Pola is ſomewhat ſmaller than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful. The eaſtern iſlands, Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are ſmall, eſpecially the laſt two, which are about five miles in circumference: but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered among the largeſt and moſt beautiful iſlands of the South Sea. They combine the advantages of a ſoil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders clothing unneceſſary. They produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-

trees, amongſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of it. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole iſland, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect," ſays captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea, that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity."

## NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent; but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 169 and 180 degrees eaſt from Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joſeph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of *European* fruits, grain, and plants, would, flouriſh here in the utmoſt luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed that the winters are milder than thoſe in England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equally warm; ſo that it is imagined, that if this country was ſettled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied not only with the neceſſaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle axes; and they have generally ſhown themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them.

as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

The name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is about fifty miles in length, and thirty broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the weſt, Caermarthen and Lanſdown hills; on the north, the northern parts of Broken Bay; and to the ſouthward, the ſouthern parts of Botany Bay; thus including completely theſe three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of ſettlement, at Sydney Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very firſt landing of governor Philip on the ſhore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed; but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads, and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water, and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expenſe quays may be conſtructed, at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore-houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace temporary barracks are erected; but no permanent buildings will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the forms of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be two hundred feet wide.

The climate at Sydney Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea-ſide. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Braſil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European ſorts, and ſuch as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers; the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing-grounds which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable they do not even know the uſe of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Island*, lying in ſouth latitude twenty-nine degrees, and eaſt long. 168-10, at the diſtance of two hundred miles from New Holland. The party ſent out to form the

# SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of diſcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their courſe they diſcovered two iſlands, which captain Cook called Prince Edward's Iſles. The largeſt, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 ſouth; long. 37-46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, is in lat. 46-40, and long. 38-8, eaſt, both barren, and almoſt covered with ſnow. From New Holland they ſailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they viſited the Friendly and the Society iſles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between twenty-two deg. fifteen min. and eighteen deg. fifty-three min. north lat. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent, bearing north-eaſt. They afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive: that part of it where the ſhips under the command of captain Cook anchored is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May they diſcovered Sandwich Sound in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour, in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka; and after their departure from thence, ſtill continued to trace the American coaſt, till they diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates it from the continent of Aſia. Here both the hemiſpheres preſented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the ſea between them not very deep. They paſſed the ſtrait, and arrived on the 20th of Auguſt, 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 51 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impracticable for any uſeful purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther, and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage, indeed, afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and this paſſage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries

# A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE;

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* D. M. | *Long.* D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abbeville, | Picardy, | France, | Europe | 50- 7N. | 1-51 E. |
| Aberdeen | Aberdeenſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-22N. | 1-40W. |
| Abo, | Finland, | Sweden, | Europe | 60-27N. | 22-18 E. |
| Acapulco, | Mexico, | North | America | 17-10N. | 101 20W. |
| Adrianople, | Romania | Turkey, | Europe | 42-00N. | 26-30 E. |
| Adriatic ſea, or Gulf of Venice | between | Italy and Turkey, | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Achem, | Sumatra | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 5-22N. | 95-29 E. |
| Adventure Iſle | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 17-05 S. | 144-18W. |
| Agde, | Languedoc | France, | Europe | 43-18N. | 3-33 E. |
| Agen, | Guienne, | France, | Europe | 44-12N. | 0-40 E. |
| St. Agnes (lights) | Scillies, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 49-56N. | 6-41W. |
| Agra, | Agra, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 26-43N. | 76-49 E. |
| Air, | Airſhire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-30N. | 4-35W. |
| Aix, | Provence | France, | Europe | 43-31N. | 5-31 E. |
| Albany, | New York, | North | America | 42-48N. | 73-30W. |
| Alby, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-55N. | 2-13 E. |
| Aleppo, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 35-45N. | 37-25 E. |
| Alexandretta, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-35N. | 36-25 E. |
| Alexandria, | Lower Egypt, | Turkey, | Africa | 31-11N. | 30-21 E. |
| Algiers, | Algiers, | Barbary, | Africa | 36-49N. | 2-17 E. |
| Amboyna, | Amboyna Iſle, | Eaſt India, | Aſia | 4-25 S. | 127-25 E. |
| Ambryn Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 16-09 S. | 168-17 E. |
| Amiens, | Iſle of France, | France, | Europe | 49-53N. | 2-22 E. |
| AMSTERDAM, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-22N. | 4-49 E. |
| Amſterdam Iſle, | | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 21-09 S. | 174-51W. |
| Ancona, | March of Ancona, | Italy, | Europe | 43-37N. | 13-35 E. |
| Angra, | Tercera Iſle, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-39N. | 27-07W. |
| Antigua (St. John's town) | Antigua Iſle, | Carib. Sea, | N. America, | 17-04N. | 62-04W. |
| Antioch, | Syria, | Turkey, | Aſia | 36-30N. | 36-40 E. |
| Antwerp, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-13N. | 04-27 E. |
| Archipelago, | Iſlands of | Greece, | Europe | Mediterranean Sea. | |
| Apæ (Iſle) | Pacific | Ocean, | Aſia | 16-46 S. | 168-32 E. |
| Archangel | Dwina, | Ruſſia, | Europe | 64-34N. | 38-59 E. |
| Aſcenſion Iſle, | | South Atlantic Ocean, | | 7-56N. | 14-27W. |
| Aſtracan, | Aſtracan, | Ruſſia, | Aſia | 46-00N. | 51-00 E. |
| Athens, | Achaia, | Turkey, | Europe | 38-05N. | 23-57 E. |
| St. Auguſtin, | Madagaſcar | South Ind. Sea, | Africa | 23-35 S. | 43-13 E. |
| Aurora Iſle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Aſia | 15-08 S. | 168-22 E. |

| Names of Places. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quarter. | Lat. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Delft, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-06 N. | 4-05 E. |
| Derbent, | Dagistan, | Persia, | Asia | 41-41 N. | 50-50 E. |
| Dax, | Gascony, | France, | Europe | 43-42 N. | 0-58 W. |
| Dieppe, | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-55 N. | 0-59 E. |
| Dijon, | Burgundy, | France, | Europe | 47-19 N. | 4-57 E. |
| Dilbingen, | Suabia, | Germany, | Europe | 48-30 N. | 10-19 E. |
| Dol, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 48-33 N. | 1-41 W. |
| Dominique, | Wind. Islands, | West India, | America | 15-18 N. | 1-22 W. |
| Dover, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-07 N. | 1-13 E. |
| Dreux, | Orleannois, | France. | Europe | 48-44 N. | 1-16 E. |
| Derby, | Derbyshire, | England, | Europe | 52-58 N. | 1-30 W. |
| Derry, | Ulster, | Ireland. | Europe | 54-52 N. | 7-40 W. |
| Dieu, | Guzzerat, | East India, | Asia | 21-37 N. | 69-30 E. |
| DRESDEN, | Saxony, | Germany, | Europe | 51-00 N. | 13-36 E. |
| Dundee, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-26 N. | 2-48 W. |
| DUBLIN, | Leinster, | Ireland, | Europe | 53-21 N. | 6-01 W. |
| Durham, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-48 N. | 1-25 W. |
| Dumbarton, | Dumbartonsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-44 N. | 4-20 W. |
| Dungeness, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 50-62 N. | 1-04 E. |
| Dunkirk, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-02 N. | 2-27 E. |
| Dunbar, | Haddington, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58 N. | 2-25 W. |
| Dumfries, | Dumfriesshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-08 N. | 3-25 W. |
| English Channel, | between | Eng. and Fran. | Europe | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Eastern Ocean, | betw. the N.W. of | N. Am. and | N.E. of | Asia, | N. Pacific Ocean. |
| Ephesus, | Natolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 38-01 N. | 27-30 E. |
| Eaoowe Isle, | Pacific, | Ocean, | Asia | 21-24 S. | 174-25 W. |
| Easter Isle, | Pacific, | Ocean, | America | 27-06 S. | 109-41 W. |
| Edinburgh, | Edinburghsh. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-57 N. | 3-07 W. |
| Eddystone | Eng. Channel. | England, | Europe | 50-08 N. | 4-19 W. |
| Embrun, | Dauphine | France, | Europe | 44-34 N. | 6-34 E. |
| Enatum Isle, | Pacific | Ocean, | Asia | 20-10 S. | 169-59 E. |
| Elbing, | Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-15 N. | 20-00 E. |
| Embden, | Westphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 54-25 N. | 7-10 E. |
| Erramanga Isle | Pacific | Ocean, | Asia | 18-46 S. | 169-28 E. |
| Erzerum, | Turcomania, | Turkey, | Asia | 39-56 N. | 42-05 E. |
| Ethiopian Sea, | Coast of | Guinea, | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Eustatius, | Carib. Sea, | West India | N. Amer. | 17-29 N. | 63-05 W. |
| Evreux | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-01 N. | 1-15 E. |
| Exeter, | Devonshire, | England, | Europe | 50-44 N. | 3-29 W. |
| Falmouth, | Cornwall, | England, | Europe | 50-08 N. | 4-57 W. |
| Falkirk, | Stirling, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-58 N. | 3-48 W. |
| Fez, | Fez, | Morocco, | Africa | 33-30 N. | 6-00 W. |
| Ferrol, | Galicia, | Spain, | Europe | 43-30 N. | 8-40 W. |
| Fayal Town, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-32 N. | 28-30 W. |
| Ferdinand Naronka, | | Brasil, | South America | 3-56 S. | 32-45 W. |
| Ferrara, | Ferrarese, | Italy, | Europe | 44-54 N. | 11-41 E. |
| Ferro (Town) | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean. | Africa | 27-47 N. | 17-40 W. |
| Florence, | Tuscany, | Italy, | Europe | 43-46 N. | 11-07 E. |
| Flores, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean. | Europe | 39-34 N. | 30-51 W. |
| St. Flour, | Auvergne, | France, | Europe | 45-01 N. | 3-10 E. |
| France (Isle of) | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 10-09 S. | 57-09 E. |

| Names of Places. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quarter. | Lat. D. M. | Lng. D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| St. Helena, Ja. Town, | South | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 15-55 S. | 5-44W. |
| Hermosand, | W. Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 62-38 N. | 17-58 E. |
| Hervey's Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-17 S. | 158-43W. |
| Haerlem, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-20 N. | 4-10 E. |
| Hereford, | Herefordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-06 N. | 2-38W. |
| Hoai-Nghan, | Kian-Nan, | China, | Asia | 33-34 N. | 118-54 E. |
| La Hogue Cape | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-44 N. | 1-51W. |
| Hood's Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 9-26 S. | 138-47W. |
| Hoogstraten, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-24 N. | 4-52 E. |
| Howe's Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-46 S. | 154-01W. |
| Huaheine Isle | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-44 S. | 151-01W. |
| Hull, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 53-45 N. | 0-12W. |
| Hudson's Bay, | Coast of | Labrador, | N. Amer. | N. Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Iakutskoi, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 62-01 N. | 129-52 E. |
| Janeiro Rio, | | Brasil, | S. Amer. | 22-54 S. | 42-38W. |
| Jassy, | Moldavia, | Turkey, | Europe | 47-08 N. | 27-34 E. |
| Java Head, | Java Isle, | East India, | Asia | 6-49 S. | 106-55 E. |
| Jeddo, | Japan Isle, | East India, | Asia | 36-20 N. | 139-00 E. |
| Jerusalem, | Palestine, | Turkey, | Asia | 31-55 N. | 35-25 E. |
| Immer Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-10 S. | 169-51 E. |
| Ingolstadt, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-45 N. | 11-27 E. |
| St. John's To. | Antigua, | Leeward Isles, | N. Amer. | 17-04 N. | 62-04 E. |
| St. John's To. | Newfoundland | North America | | 47-32 N. | 52-21W. |
| St. Joseph's, | Califonia, | Mexico, | N. Amer. | 23-03 N. | 109-37W. |
| Irraname Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-31 S. | 170-26 E. |
| Islamabad, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 22-20 N. | 91-50 E. |
| Isles of Pines, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 22-38 S. | 167-43 E. |
| Ispahan, | Irac Agem, | Persia, | Asia | 32-25 N. | 52-55 E. |
| Judda, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 21-29 N. | 40-27 E. |
| Juthria, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 14-18 N. | 100-55 E. |
| Inverness, | Invernessshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-33 N. | 4-02W. |
| Ivica Isle, | Mediterr. Sea, | Italy, | Europe | 38-50 N. | 1-40 E. |

Isthmus of Suez joins Africa to Asia.
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia.
Irish Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coast of India, Asia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kamtschatka, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 57-20 N. | 163-00 E. |
| Kedgere, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 21-48 N. | 88-55 E. |
| Kelso, | Roxboroughs. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38 N. | 02-12W. |
| Kilmarnock, | Airshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38 N. | 00-30W. |
| Kinsale, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-32 N. | 08-20W. |
| Kingston, | Jamaica, | West India, | America | 18-15 N. | 76-38W. |
| Kiow, | Ukraine, | Russia, | Europe | 50-30 N. | 31-12 E. |
| Kola, | Lapland, | Russia, | Europe | 68-52 N. | 33-13 E. |
| Koningsberg, | Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-43 N. | 21-35 E. |
| Lancaster, | Lancashire, | England, | Europe | 54-05 N. | 02-35 E. |
| Levant sea, | Coast of | Syria, | Asia | Mediterranean sea. | |
| Laguna, | Teneriffe, | Canaries, | A. Ocean | 28-29 N. | 16-15W. |
| Land, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 49-11 N. | 08-02 E. |

diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracks of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterpriſes. It was reſerved for captain Cook to ſhow the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree."

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## TERRA-INCOGNITA, or UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

### IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe, the moderns are acquainted with the ſea-coaſts only, and theſe very imperfectly: the internal parts being little known to us; nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world.

### IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, are very little known. All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the Lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is likewiſe unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and the ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful. It is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montréal, even from the diſtance of one thouſand miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons on the South, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements, which, from the unhealthineſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| St. Helena, Ja. Town, | South | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 15-55 S. | 5-44W. |
| Hermosand, | W. Bothnia, | Sweden, | Europe | 62-38 N. | 17-58 E. |
| Hervey's Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-17 S. | 158-45W. |
| Haerlem, | Holland, | Netherlands, | Europe | 52-20 N. | 4-10 E. |
| Hereford, | Herefordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-06 N. | 2-38W. |
| Hoai-Nghan, | Kian-Nan, | China, | Asia | 33-34 N. | 118-54 E. |
| La Hogue Cape | Normandy, | France, | Europe | 49-44 N. | 1-51W. |
| Hood's Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 9-26 S. | 138-47W. |
| Hoogstraten, | Brabant, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-24 N. | 4-52 E. |
| Howe's Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-46 S. | 154-01W. |
| Huaheine Isle | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-44 S. | 151-01W. |
| Hull, | Yorkshire, | England, | Europe | 53-45 N. | 0-12W. |
| Hudson's Bay, | Coast of | Labrador, | N. Amer. | N. Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Jakutskoi, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 62-01 N. | 129-52 E. |
| Janeiro Rio, | | Brasil, | S. Amer. | 22-54 S. | 42-38W. |
| Jassy, | Moldavia, | Turkey, | Europe | 47-08 N. | 27-34 E. |
| Java Head, | Java Isle, | East India, | Asia | 6-49 S. | 106-55 E. |
| Jeddo, | Japan Isle, | East India, | Asia | 36-20 N. | 139-00 E. |
| Jerusalem, | Palestine, | Turkey, | Asia | 31-55 N. | 35-25 E. |
| Immer Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-10 S. | 169-51 E. |
| Ingolstadt, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-45 N. | 11-27 E. |
| St. John's To. | Antigua, | Leeward Isles, | N. Amer. | 17-04 N. | 62-04 E. |
| St. John's To. | Newfoundland | North | America | 47-32 N. | 52-21W. |
| St. Joseph's, | Califonia, | Mexico, | N. Amer. | 23-03 N. | 109-37W. |
| Irraname Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-31 S. | 170-26 E. |
| Islamabad, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 22-20 N. | 91-50 E. |
| Isles of Pines, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 22-38 S. | 167-45 E. |
| ISPAHAN, | Irac Agem, | Persia, | Asia | 32-25 N. | 52-55 E. |
| Judda, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 21-29 N. | 40-27 E. |
| Juthria, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 14-18 N. | 100-55 E. |
| Inverness, | Invernessshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 57-33 N. | 4-02W. |
| Ivica Isle, | Mediterr. Sea, | Italy, | Europe | 38-50 N. | 1-40 E. |

Isthmus of Suez joins Africa to Asia.
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Asia.
Irish Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coast of India, Asia.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Kamtschatka, | Siberia, | Russia, | Asia | 57-20 N. | 163-00 E. |
| Kedgere, | Bengal, | East India, | Asia | 21-48 N. | 88-55 E. |
| Kelso, | Roxboroughs. | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38 N. | 02-12W. |
| Kilmarnock, | Airshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 55-38 N. | 00-30W. |
| Kinsale, | Munster, | Ireland, | Europe | 51-32 N. | 08-30W. |
| KINGSTON, | Jamaica, | West India, | America | 18-15 N. | 76-38W. |
| Kiow, | Ukraine, | Russia, | Europe | 50-30 N. | 31-12 E. |
| Kola, | Lapland, | Russia, | Europe | 68-52 N. | 33-13 E. |
| Koningsberg, | Prussia, | Poland, | Europe | 54-43 N. | 21-35 E. |
| Lancaster, | Lancashire, | England, | Europe | 54-05 N. | 02-55 E. |
| Levant sea, | Coast of | Syria, | Asia | Mediterranean sea. | |
| Laguna, | Teneriffe, | Canaries, | A. Ocean | 28-28 N. | 16-13W. |
| Land, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 49-11 N. | 08-02 E. |

| *Names of Places.* | *Provinces.* | *Countries.* | *Quarter.* | *Lat.* | *Long.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | D. M. | D. M. |
| Marseilles, | Provence, | France, | Europe | 43-17 N. | 05-27 E. |
| St. Martha, | St. Martha, | Terra Firma, | America | 11-26 N. | 75-50 W. |
| St. Martin's Isle | Caribbean Isle, | West India | America | 18-04 N. | 62-57 W. |
| Martinico Isle, | Caribbean Isle, | West India, | America | 14-44 N. | 61-05 W. |
| St. Mary's Isle, | Sicily Isles, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 49-57 N. | 06-38 W. |
| St. Mary's To. | Azores, | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 36-56 N. | 25-06 W. |
| Maskelyne Isles | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-32 S. | 168-04 E. |
| Mauritius, | Indian | Ocean, | Africa | 20-09 S. | 57-34 E. |
| Maurua Isle, | South, | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-35 S. | 152-37 E. |
| Mayence, | Lower Rhine, | Germany, | Europe | 49-54 N. | 08-25 E. |
| Mayo Isle, | Cape Verd, | Atlantic Ocean | Africa | 15-10 N. | 23-00 W. |
| Meaux, | Champagne, | France, | Europe | 48-57 N. | 02-57 E. |
| Medina, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 25-00 N. | 39-33 E. |
| Mecca, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 21-45 N. | 41-00 E. |
| Mediterr. Sea, | between | Europe and | Africa | Atlantic Ocean. | |
| Mequinez, | Fez, | Barbary, | Africa | 34-30 N. | 06-00 E. |
| Messina, | Sicily Island, | Italy, | Europe | 38-30 N. | 15-40 E. |
| Mergui, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 12-12 N. | 98-13 E. |
| Mexico, | Mexico, | North | America | 19-54 N. | 100-00 W. |
| Milford Haven, | Pembrokesh. | Wales, | Europe | 51-43 N. | 05-15 W. |
| Mitea Isles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-52 S. | 48-01 W. |
| St. Michael's Isle, | Azores | Atlantic Ocean | Europe | 37-47 N. | 25-37 W. |
| Middleburg Isl. | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 21-20 S. | 174-39 W. |
| Milan, | Milanese, | Italy, | Europe | 45-25 N. | 09-30 E. |
| Mocha, | Arabia Felix, | Arabia, | Asia | 13-40 N. | 43-30 E. |
| Modena, | Modena, | Italy, | Europe | 44-34 N. | 11-17 E. |
| Montreal, | Canada, | North, | America | 45-35 N. | 73-11 W. |
| Montpellier, | Languedoc, | France, | Europe | 43-36 N. | 03-37 E. |
| Montrose, | Forfar, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-34 N. | 0-20 W. |
| Montague Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 17-26 S. | 168-36 E. |
| Montserrat Isle | Caribbean Isles, | West India, | America | 16-47 N. | 62-12 W. |
| Morocco, | Morocco, | Barbary, | Africa | 30-32 N. | 06-10 W. |
| Moscow, | Moscow, | Russia, | Europe | 55-45 N. | 37-50 E. |
| Munich, | Bavaria, | Germany, | Europe | 48-09 N. | 11-35 E. |
| Munster, | Westphalia, | Germany, | Europe | 52-00 N. | 07-16 E. |
| Narva, | Livonia, | Russia, | Europe | 59-00 N. | 27-35 E. |
| Nanci, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 48-41 N. | 06-10 E. |
| Nanking, | Kiangan, | China, | Asia | 32-10 N. | 181-30 E. |
| Namur, | Namur, | Netherlands | Europe | 50-28 N. | 4-49 E. |
| Nangasachi, | Japan, | N. Pacific Oc. | Asia | 32-32 N. | 182-51 E. |
| Naples, | Naples, | Italy, | Europe | 40-50 N. | 14-13 E. |
| Nantes, | Bretagne, | France, | Europe | 47-13 N. | 01-28 W. |
| Nice, | Piedmont, | Italy, | Europe | 43-41 N. | 07-22 E. |
| Newport, | Rhode Island, | North, | America | 41-35 N. | 71-06 W. |
| Nieuport, | Flanders, | Netherlands, | Europe | 51-07 N. | 02-50 E. |
| New York, | New York, | North, | America | 40-40 N. | 74-00 W. |
| Nineveh, | Curdistan, | Turkey, | Asia | 36-00 N. | 45-00 E. |
| St. Nich. Mole, | Hispaniola, | West India, | America | 19-49 N. | 73-24 W. |
| Newcastle, | Northumberl. | England, | Europe | 55-03 N. | 01-24 W. |
| Ningpo, | Chekiang, | China, | Asia | 29-57 N. | 120-23 E. |
| Norfolk Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 29-01 S. | 168-15 E. |
| Noriton, | Pennsylvania, | North, | America | 40-09 N. | 75-18 W. |

| Names of Places. | Provinces. | Countries. | Quarter. | Lat. D. M. | Long. D. M. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shepherd's Isles, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 16-58 S. | 168-47 E. |
| Siam, | Siam, | East India, | Asia | 14-18 N. | 100-55 E. |
| Si-gham-fu, | Chensi, | China, | Asia | 34-16 N. | 108-48 E. |
| Sisteron, | Dauphiny, | France, | Europe | 44-11 N. | 6-01 W. |
| Shrewsbury, | Shropshire, | England, | Europe | 52-43 N. | 2-46 W. |
| Shields (South) | Durham, | England, | Europe | 55-02 N. | 1-15 E. |
| Sheerness, | Kent, | England, | Europe | 51-25 N. | 0-50 E. |
| Seville, | Andalusia, | Spain, | Europe | 37-15 N. | 6-05 W. |
| Sidon, | Holy Land, | Turkey, | Asia | 33-33 N. | 36-15 E. |
| Smyrna, | Napolia, | Turkey, | Asia | 38-28 N. | 27-24 E. |
| Southampton, | Hampshire, | England, | Europe | 50-55 N. | 01-25 W. |
| Sombevera Isles, | Carib. Sea, | West India, | N. America | 18-38 N. | 63-32 W. |
| Soolo Isle, | Philip. Isles, | East India, | Asia | 5-57 N. | 121-30 E. |
| Spa, | Liege, | Germany, | Europe | 50-30 N. | 5-40 E. |
| Sound, | between | Denmark and Sweden | Europe | Baltic Sea. | |
| Stafford, | Staffordshire, | England, | Europe | 52-50 N. | 2-00 W. |
| Stirling, | Stirlingshire, | Scotland, | Europe | 56-10 N. | 3-50 W. |
| Stralsund, | Pomerania, | Germany, | Europe | 54-23 N. | 13-22 E. |
| Strasburgh, | Alsace, | France, | Europe | 48-34 N. | 7-46 E. |
| Stockholm, | Upland, | Sweden, | Europe | 59-20 N. | 18-08 E. |

Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.
Straits of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia,

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Straumness, | Iceland, | N. Atlantic Ocean, | Europe | 65-39 N. | 24-04 W. |
| Suez, | Suez, | Egypt, | Africa | 29-50 N. | 32-27 E. |
| Sunderland, | Durham, | England, | Europe | 54-55 N. | 1-10 W. |
| Surinam, | Surinam, | South | America | 6-00 N. | 56-30 W. |
| Saltz, | Lorrain, | France, | Europe | 47-53 N. | 7-09 W. |
| Surat, | Guzerat, | East India, | Asia | 21-10 N. | 72-27 E. |
| Syracuse, | Sicily Isle, | Italy, | Europe | 36-58 N. | 5-05 E. |
| TAbie Islands | New Hebrides, | South Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 15-58 S. | 167-12 E. |
| Tafna, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 19-32 S. | 169-46 E. |
| Tanjour, | Tanjour, | East India, | Asia | 11-07 N. | 79-07 E. |
| Tauris, | Aderbeitzan, | Persia, | Asia | 38-20 N. | 46-30 E. |
| Taoukaa Isle, | South | Pacific Ocean, | Asia | 14-30 S. | 145-04 W. |
| Temontengis, | Saloo, | East India, | Asia | 5-57 N. | 120-58 E. |
| Teneriffe Peak, | Canaries, | Atlant. Ocean, | Africa | 28-12 N. | 16-24 W. |
| Tercera, | Azores, | Atlant. Ocean, | Europe | 38-45 N. | 27-01 W. |
| St. Thomas's Isle | Virgin Isles | West India, | America | 18-21 N. | 64-20 W. |

## BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY,
*Prague, Breslau, Presburg, &c.*

| | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 ½ |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 ¾ |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Grosh — | 0 | 0 | 0 ¾ |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Cruitzers | = | a White Grosh | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## AUSTRIA AND SWABIA,
*Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— — | 0 | 0 | 0 ½ |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 ¾ |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 14 Fenings | = | a Grosh — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 15 Batzen | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Florins | = | a Specie dollar | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 60 Batzen | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## FRANCONIA, *Frankfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 ½ |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | a Keyser Grosh | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 15 Cruitzers | = | an Ort Gold | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 240 Cruitzers | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## POLAND AND PRUSSIA.
*Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningsberg, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Shelon | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 ½ |
| 3 Shelons | = | a Grosh | 0 | 0 | 0 ¾ |
| 5 Groshen | = | a Coustic — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 3 Boustics | = | a Tinse | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 18 Groshen | = | an Ort — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 30 Groshen | = | a Florin — | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 90 Groshen | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat - | 0 | 9 | 4 |
| 5 Rix-dollars | = | a Frederick d'Oro | 17 | | 6 |

## LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Blacken | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 6 Blackens | = | a Grosh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 9 Blackens | = | a Vording | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Groshen | = | a Whiten | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 6 Groshen | = | a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 30 Groshen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 90 Groshen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 108 Groshen | = | an Albertus | — | 0 | 4 | 2 | $1\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 64 Whitens | = | a Copper-plate Dollar | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |

## DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

*Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Skilling | — | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 6 Skillings | = | a Duggen | | 0 | 0 | 3 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 16 Skillings | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 9 | |
| 20 Skillings | = | a Rix-marc | — | 0 | 0 | 11 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 24 Skillings | = | a Rix-ort | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 3 | 0 | |
| 6 Marcs | = | a rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 11 Marcs | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 8 | 3 | |
| 14 Marcs | = | a Hat Ducat | — | 0 | 10 | 6 | |

## SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

*Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Runstick | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Runsticks | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 8 Runsticks | = | a Copper Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{5}{8}$ |
| 3 Copper Marcs | = | a Silver Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 4 Copper Marcs | = | a Copper Dollar | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 9 Copper Marcs | = | a Caroline | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 Copper Dollars | = | a Silver Dollar | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 3 Silver Dollars | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rix-dollars | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## RUSSIA AND MOSCOVY.

*Petersburg, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Polusca | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Poluscas | = | a Denusca | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Denuscas | = | * a Copec | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 3 Copecs | = | an Altin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 10 Copecs | = | a Grievener | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 25 Copecs | = | a Polpotin | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 50 Copecs | = | a Poltin | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 100 Copecs | = | a Ruble | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rubles | = | a Xervonitz | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 Rapen | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzers | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Fenings | =* | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Fenings | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 18 Fenings | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | =* | a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 108 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |

## ST. GALL. *Appenzel, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Heller | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Hellers | = | a Fening | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 12 Fenings | =* | a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Coarse Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Good Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | =* | a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 102 Cruitzers | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 5 |

## BERN. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Dernier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Deniers | = | a Cruitzer | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | * a Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Plapert | — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 5 Cruitzers | = | a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 6 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen | — | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| 20 Sols | | * a Livre | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 75 Cruitzers | = | a Gulden | — | 0 | 2 | 6 |
| 125 Cruitzers | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 4 | 6 |

## GENEVA. *Pekay, Bonne, &c.*

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Denier | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Deniers | = | a Denier current | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers | = | a Small Sol | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Deniers current | = | a Sol current | — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 Small Sols | = | * a Florin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 20 Sols current | = | * a Livre current | — | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| 10¼ Florins | = | a Patacoon | — | 0 | 3 | 11 |
| 15¼ Florins | = | a Croisade | — | 0 | 5 | 10 |
| 24 Florins | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 0 |

ITALY.

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | = | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 3 Quatrini | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | |
| 40 Quatrini | = | a Paulo | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 8 | |
| 40 Grains | = | a Testoon | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | |
| 100 Grains | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 23 Tarins | = | a Pistole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |
| 25 Tarins | = | a Spanish Pistole | | 0 | 16 | 9 | |

## SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Messina, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pichila | = | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 6 Pichili | = | a Grain | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 8 Pichili | = | a Ponti | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 10 Grains | = | a Carlin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1/2 |
| 20 Grains | = | a Tarin | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1/2 |
| 6 Tarins | = | * a Florin of Ex. | | 0 | 1 | 6 | 1/2 |
| 13 Tarins | = | a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 3 | 4 | |
| 60 Carlins | = | * an Ounce | — | 0 | 7 | 8 | 1/2 |
| 2 Ounces | = | a Pistole | — | 0 | 15 | 4 | |

## *Bologna, Ravenna, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Quatrini | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 6 Quartrini | = | a Bayoc | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 10 Bayocs | = | a Julio | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Bayocs | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| 3 Julios | = | a Testoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 85 Bayocs | = | a Scudi of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 3 | |
| 100 Bayocs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 105 Bayocs | = | a Ducatoon | — | 0 | 5 | 3 | |
| 31 Julios | = | a Pistole | — | 0 | 15 | 6 | |

## VENICE. *Bergamo, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Picoli | — | — | | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 12 Picoli | = | a Soldi | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1/2 |
| 6 1/2 Soldi | = | * a Gros | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1/2 |
| 18 Soldi | = | a Jule | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | |
| 20 Soldi | = | * a Lire | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | 1/2 |
| 3 Jules | = | a Testoon | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 124 Soldi | = | a Ducat current | | 0 | 3 | 5 | 1/2 |
| 24 Gros | = | * a Ducat of Ex. | | 0 | 4 | 4 | |
| 17 Lires | = | a Chequin | — | 0 | 9 | 8 | |

ASIA.

MOGUL.

MALABAR.

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Budgrook | | —— | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 2 Budgrooks | = | * Rez | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 5 Rez | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 10 Pices | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | [illegible] |
| 20 Pices | = | a Quarter | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | [illegible] |
| 240 Rez | = | a Xeraphim | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | [illegible] |
| 4 Quarters | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 14 Quarters | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 0 | |
| 60 Quarters | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

*Goa, Visapour, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Re | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 2 Rez | = | a Bazaraco | | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 2 Bazaracas | = | a Pecka | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 20 Rez | = | a Vintin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | [illegible] |
| 4 Vintins | = | a Laree | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | [illegible] |
| 3 Larees | = | a Xeraphim | — | 0 | 1 | 4 | [illegible] |
| 42 Vintins | = | a Tangu | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 4 Tangus | = | a Paru | — | 0 | 18 | 0 | |
| 8 Tangus | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

COROMANDEL, *Madras, Pondicherry, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Cash | — | — | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 5 Cash | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 2 Viz | = | a Pice | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 6 Pices | = | a Pical | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | [illegible] |
| 18 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 3 | |
| 10 Fanams | = | a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an English Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 6 Fanams | = | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 9 | |
| 4 Pagodas | = | a Gold Rupee | | 1 | 15 | 0 | |

BENGAL. *Calticut, Calcutta, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Pice | — | —— | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 4 Pices | = | a Fanam | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 6 Pices | = | a Viz | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | [illegible] |
| 12 Pices | = | an Ana | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | [illegible] |
| 10 Anas | = | a Fiano | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | |
| 16 Anas | = | * a Rupee | — | 0 | 2 | 6 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | a French Ecu | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 2 Rupees | = | an English Crown | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |
| 56 Anas | | a Pagoda | — | 0 | 8 | 6 | |

* Major Rennell says, that we may with ease reduce any large sum in rupees to sterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thousand pounds, and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million sterling.

## BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY,
*Prague, Breslau, Presburg, &c.*

| | | | £. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Fenings | = | a Grosh — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Cruitzers | = | a White Grosh | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 4 Goulds | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## AUSTRIA AND SWABIA,
*Vienna, Trieste, &c. Augsburg, Blenheim, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 Fenings | = | a Dreyer — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer — | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 Fenings | = | a Grosh — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Batzen | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Florins | = | a Specie dollar | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| 60 Batzen | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## FRANCONIA, *Frankfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Fening | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 Fenings | = | a Cruitzer | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Cruitzers | = | a Keyser Grosh | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 Cruitzers | = | a Batzen — | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 15 Cruitzers | = | an Ort Gold | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 60 Cruitzers | = | a Gould — | 0 | 2 | 4 |
| 90 Cruitzers | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 2 Goulds | = | a Hard Dollar | 0 | 4 | 8 |
| 240 Cruitzers | = | a Ducat — | 0 | 9 | 4 |

## POLAND AND PRUSSIA.
*Cracow, Warsaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningsberg, &c.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Shelon | = | —— | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 Shelons | = | a Grosh | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 Groshen | = | a Coustic — | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| 3 Boustics | = | a Tinse | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| 18 Groshen | = | an Ort — | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| 30 Groshen | = | a Florin — | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 90 Groshen | = | * a Rix-dollar | 0 | 3 | 6 |
| 8 Florins | = | a Ducat - | 0 | 9 | 4 |
| 5 Rix-dollars | = | a Frederick d'Or | 0 | 17 | 6 |

## LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

| | | | | £. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Blacken | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 6 Blackens | = | a Grosh | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 9 Blackens | = | a Vording | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Groshen | = | a Whiten | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 6 Groshen | = | a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 2 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 30 Groshen | = | a Florin | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 90 Groshen | = | * a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 3 | 6 | |
| 108 Groshen | = | an Albertus | — | 0 | 4 | 2 | $1\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 64 Whitens | = | a Copper-plate Dollar | | 0 | 5 | 0 | |

## DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

*Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Skilling | — | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 6 Skillings | = | a Duggen | | 0 | 0 | 3 | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 16 Skillings | = | * a Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 9 | |
| 20 Skillings | = | a Rix-marc | — | 0 | 0 | 11 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 24 Skillings | = | a Rix-ort | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 4 Marcs | = | a Crown | — | 0 | 3 | 0 | |
| 6 Marcs | = | a rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 11 Marcs | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 8 | 3 | |
| 14 Marcs | = | a Hat Ducat | — | 0 | 10 | 6 | |

## SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

*Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| * A Runstick | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Runsticks | = | a Stiver | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 8 Runsticks | = | a Copper Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 3 Copper Marcs | = | a Silver Marc | — | 0 | 0 | 4 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 4 Copper Marcs | = | a Copper Dollar | — | 0 | 0 | 6 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 9 Copper Marcs | = | a Caroline | — | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| 3 Copper Dollars | = | a Silver Dollar | — | 0 | 1 | 6 | $\frac{3}{4}$ |
| 3 Silver Dollars | = | a Rix-dollar | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rix-dollars | = | a Ducat | — | 0 | 9 | 4 | |

## RUSSIA AND MOSCOVY.

*Petersburg, Archangel, &c. Moscow, &c.*

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A Polusca | = | —— | | 0 | 0 | 0 | $\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Poluscas | = | a Denusca | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 2 Denuscas | = | * a Copec | — | 0 | 0 | 0 | $1\frac{7}{8}$ |
| 3 Copecs | = | an Altin | — | 0 | 0 | 1 | $1\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 10 Copecs | = | a Grievener | — | 0 | 0 | 5 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 25 Copecs | = | a Polpotin | — | 0 | 1 | 1 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 50 Copecs | = | a Poltin | — | 0 | 2 | 3 | |
| 100 Copecs | = | a Ruble | — | 0 | 4 | 6 | |
| 2 Rubles | = | a Xervonitz | — | 0 | 9 | 0 | |

A NEW

# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

# *REMARKABLE EVENTS,*

# DISCOVERIES, AND INVENTIONS:

ALSO,

## THE ÆRA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS OF LEARNED MEN.

The whole comprehenping, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

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Bef. Christ.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch, for his piety, is translated to Heaven.
2348 The whole world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.

About the same time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the more tractable into the East, and there either he, or one of his successors, to have founded the ancient Chinese monarchy.

2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.
2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, down to its conquest by Cambyses, in 525 years before Christ.
2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians, of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from Heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.
1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.
1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.
1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.
1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
1548 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the kingdom of Troy.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the Desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and sets up the Tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

late the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.

269 The first coining of silver at Rome.
264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Parian Chronicle, composed.
260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
257 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.
190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
165 The government of Judea under the Macabees begins, and continues 126 years.
146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.
135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.
31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
1 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.
12 CHRIST hears the doctors in the temple, and asks them questions.
27 ---------- is baptized in the wilderness by John.
33 ---------- is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.
His resurrection on Sunday, April 5, his ascension, Thursday, May 14.
36 St. Paul converted.
39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
Pontius Pilate kills himself.
40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
49 London is founded by the Romans, 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.
51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.
55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
persecutes the Druids in Britain.
61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
62 St. Paul sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.
63 The Acts of the Apostles written.
Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days! upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.
67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
70 Whilst the factious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the

581 Latin ceafed to be fpoken about this time in Italy.
596 Auguftine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the conceffion of Phocas, emperor of the Eaft.
622 Mahomet, a falfe prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his miniftry; when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their defcent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the flight.
637 Jerufalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens now extend their conquefts on every fide, and retaliate the Barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their pofterity.
661 Glafs introduced in England by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britons, after a brave ftruggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
720 The controverfy about images begins, and occafions many inſurrections in the eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt began to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the houſe of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the weſtern empire; gives the preſent names to the days and months; endeavours to reſtore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet diſpoſed for it, being ſolely engroſſed in military enterpriſes.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his ſubjects for being a Chriſtian.
823 Egbert, king of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fiſh.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders againſt whom he fought 56 battles by ſea and land, compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire is divided by uſurpation into ſeven kingdoms.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is depoſed and baniſhed for his crimes.
979 Coronation oaths ſaid to be firſt uſed in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto uſed.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleſlaus, the firſt king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in uſe; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1040 The Danes, after ſeveral engagements with various ſucceſs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hoſtile manner.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, ſerving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo IX. the firſt pope that maintained an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunſinane, and marries the princeſs Margaret, ſiſter to Edgar Atheling.
1064 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.
1066 The battle of Haſtings fought between Harold and William ſurnamed the Baſtard, duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain; after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Muſical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope quarrel about the nomination of

1307 The beginning of the Swiſs Cantons.
1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave, and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III, may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward III had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Heralds' college inſtituted in England.
1344 Gold firſt coined in England.
The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken priſoner.
1349 The Order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and conſiſts of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the black prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the Church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor Caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas: on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1399 Weſtminſter abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Weſtminſter hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725; conſiſting of 38 knights.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
1412 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France.
1430 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing, which he practiſed with wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fuſile types in 1474.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eaſtern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, founded.
1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and the laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.
1488 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.
1489 Maps and ſea charts firſt brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the

1608 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope, then juſt invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravaillac, a prieſt.
1611 Baronets firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier of Merchiſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr. W. Hervey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 The bread ſilk manufactory from raw ſilk introduced into England.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellius.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1635 The province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects; on which their army, under general Leſley, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the diſcontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures; which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by parliament.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the proteſtorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the proteſtorſhip by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands in North America conquered from the Swedes and Dutch by the Engliſh.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
St. James's park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public uſe, by Charles II.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay company incorporated.
1672 Louis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their dikes, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1680 A great comet appeared, and, from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued viſible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamouſly revoked by Louis XIV. and the Proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Louis XIV.
1688 The Revolution in Great-Britain begins Nov. 5; king James abdicates, and retires to France, Dec. 3.

On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Woronzow signed a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the emperor of Russia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war against France. Treaties were also entered into with the king of Sardinia and the prince of Hesse Cassel.

The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the spot where Louis had previously met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine, in the thirty-eighth of her age.

1794 On the first of June, the British fleet, under the command of admiral earl Howe, obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.

1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the prince of Orange, the hereditary princess, and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.

George prince of Wales married to the princess Caroline of Brunswic, April 8.

The trial of Warren Hastings concluded on the 23d of April, when he was acquitted of the charges brought against him by the house of commons.

1796 Lord Malmesbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace; but returned Dec. 29, without having effected the object of his mission.

1797 A signal victory gained over the Spanish fleet by sir John Jervis, since created earl St. Vincent, February 14.

An alarming mutiny on board the Channel fleet at Spithead, April 15.

The nuptials of the prince of Wirtemberg and the princess royal celebrated at St. James's, May 18.

Another alarming mutiny on board the fleet at Sheerness.

Parker, the chief leader in this mutiny, executed on board the Sandwich at Blackstakes, June 30.

Lord Malmesbury arrived at Lisle July 4, and opened a negotiation for a peace between England and the French republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his mission, September 19.

A signal victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, October 11.

Peace between France and Austria definitively signed at Campo Formio, Oct. 17.

A general thanksgiving for the late great naval victories. The king and the members of both houses of parliament attended divine service at St. Paul's in grand procession, Dec. 19.

1798 A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, which was quelled, after several battles with the insurgents, and much bloodshed.

The glorious victory of admiral Nelson at Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in which nine French ships of the line were taken, and two burnt; only two escaping, which were afterwards taken, August 1.

1799 War against France recommenced by the emperor; and the French driven out of almost all their conquests in Italy by the Austrians and Russians under Suwarrow.

Seringapatam taken by lieut.-general Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.

The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonaparte is to be first consul for ten years.

1800 A horrid attempt made on the life of his majesty by James Hadfield, a lunatic, who fired a pistol at him from the pit of Drury-lane theatre, May 15.

The bill for a union with Ireland signed, July 2.

The decisive battle of Marengo, gained by the French against the Austrians, June 14.

1801 The Union between Great-Britain and Ireland took place Jan. 1.

Peace signed between Austria and France at Luneville, Feb. 9.

The naval battle of Copenhagen, in which lord Nelson destroyed 18 sail of Danish ships, seven of which were of the line.

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## MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Date is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when the Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by it. The Names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, or the best of School Books.*

Bef. Ch.

907 HOMER, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper.*

Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*

884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.

600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. *Fawkes.*

558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.

556 *Æsop*, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxall.*

161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl. *Rude.*
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, the oldeſt Chriſtian author after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dunſdale. Dryden. Franklin.*
Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Gillies. Elphinſton.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Haverc.*
379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy. Preſton. Rutgerſ.*
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, Claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which profeſſion they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome: Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the fifteenth century; from which memorable æra a race of men have ſprung up in a new ſtyle, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal, the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own countrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank, with whoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.
735 Bede, a prieſt of Northumberland; Hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; Hiſtory of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Mearns-ſhire; Hiſtory of Scotland.
1400 Geoffry Chaucer, London, the father of Engliſh poetry.
1401 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London; hiſtory, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; Hiſtory of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of Scotland, Pſalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615—25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakſpeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Merchiſton, Scotland; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Cambden, London; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben Jonſon, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suſſex; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Hervey, Kent; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradiſe Loſt, Regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.

James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire; aſtronomy.

1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.

1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.

William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.

1780 Sir William Blackſtone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.

Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkſhire; philoſophy and medicine.

James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philoſophical Arrangements.

1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Lichfield; Diſcourſes on the Prophecies, and other works.

Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxburghſhire; Diſeaſes of the Army.

Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticiſm, Sketches of the Hiſtory of Man.

1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkſhire; anatomy.

Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonſhire; Hebrew Bible, Diſſertations, &c.

1784 Dr. Samuel Johnſon, Lichfield; Engliſh Dictionary, biography, eſſays, poetry, died December 13, aged 71.

1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.

Rev. Richard Burn, LL.D, author of the Juſtice of Peace, Eccleſiaſtical Law, &c. died November 20.

Richard Glovers, eſq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.

1786 Jonas Hanway, eſq. travels, miſcellanies, died September 5, aged 74.

1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, biſhop of London; criticiſm, divinity, grammar, died Nov. 3.

Soame Jenyns, eſq. Internal Evidence of the Chriſtian Religion, and other pieces, died December 18.

1788 James Stuart, eſq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died Feb. 1.

Thomas Gainſborough, eſq. the celebrated painter, died Auguſt 2.

Thomas Sheridan, eſq. Engliſh Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. died Aug. 14.

1789 William Julius Mickle, eſq. Cumberland; tranſlator of the Luſiad, died Oct. 15.

1790 Dr. Will. Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Phyſic, Materia Medica, &c. died Feb. 5.

Benjamin Franklin, eſq. Boſton, New England; Electricity, Natural Philoſophy, miſcellanies, died April 17.

Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiment, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, died April 17.

John Howard, eſq. Middleſex, Account of Priſons and Lazarettos, &c.

Rev. Thomas Warton, B.D. poet-laureat; Hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, Poems, died April 21.

1791 Rev. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganſhire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reverſionary Payments, Sermons, &c. died Feb. 19, aged 68.

Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Conſolations from Natural and Revealed Religion, died July, aged 70.

1792 Sir Joſhua Reynolds, Devonſhire; Preſident of the Royal Academy of Painting; Diſcourſes on Painting delivered before the Academy, died Feb. 19, aged 68.

1793 Rev. Dr. William Robertſon, Principal of the Univerſity of Edinburgh, and Hiſtoriographer to his Majeſty for Scotland; Hiſtory of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. Hiſtory of America, and Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning India, died June 11, aged 72.

1794 Edward Gibbon, eſq. Surry; Hiſtory of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, died January 16.

1795 Sir William Jones, one of the Judges of India, and Preſident of the Aſiatic Society; ſeveral law tracts, tranſlation of Iſæus, and of the Moallakat, or ſeven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Aſiatic Reſearches.

1797 Edmund Burke, eſq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.

1799 W. Melmoth; Tranſlations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzoſborne's Letters, &c.

Lord Monboddo; Origin and Progreſs of Language.

1800 W. Cowper, eſq. Poetry, died 25th April.

FINIS.

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